

ANNEX 3 Methodological Descriptions for Additional Source or Sink Categories

3.1. Methodology for Estimating Emissions of CH₄, N₂O, and Indirect Greenhouse Gases from Stationary Combustion

Estimates of CH₄ and N₂O Emissions

Methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions from stationary combustion were estimated using methods from the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC). Estimates were obtained by multiplying emission factors—by sector and fuel type—by fossil fuel and wood consumption data. This “top-down” methodology is characterized by two basic steps, described below. Data are presented in Table A-65 through Table A-67.

Step 1: Determine Energy Consumption by Sector and Fuel Type

Energy consumption from stationary combustion activities was grouped by sector: industrial, commercial, residential, electric power, and U.S. Territories. For CH₄ and N₂O emissions from industrial, commercial, residential, and U.S. Territories, estimates were based upon consumption of coal, gas, oil, and wood. Energy consumption and wood consumption data for the United States were obtained from the Energy Information Administration’s (EIA) *Monthly Energy Review* (EIA 2024). Because the United States does not include U.S. Territories in its national energy statistics, fuel consumption data for U.S. Territories were collected from EIA’s International Energy Statistics database (EIA 2023) and Jacobs (2010).⁴⁴ Fuel consumption for the industrial sector was adjusted to subtract out construction and agricultural use, which is reported under mobile sources.⁴⁵ Construction and agricultural fuel use was obtained from EPA (2022b) and the Federal Highway Administration (FHWA) (1996 through 2022). The energy consumption data by sector were then adjusted from higher to lower heating values by multiplying by 0.90 for natural gas and wood and by 0.95 for coal and petroleum fuel. This is a simplified convention used by the International Energy Agency (IEA). Table A-65 provides annual energy consumption data for the years 1990 through 2022.

In this *Inventory*, the energy consumption estimation methodology for the electric power sector used a Tier 2 methodology as fuel consumption by technology-type for the electric power sector was estimated based on the Acid Rain Program Dataset (EPA 2023a). Total fuel consumption in the electric power sector from EIA (2024) was apportioned to each combustion technology type and fuel combination using a ratio of fuel consumption by technology type derived from EPA (2023a) data. The combustion technology and fuel use data by facility obtained from EPA (2023a) were only available from 1996 to 2022, so the consumption estimates from 1990 to 1995 were estimated by applying the 1996 consumption ratio by combustion technology type from EPA (2023a) to the total EIA (2024) consumption for each year from 1990 to 1995.

Step 2: Determine the Amount of CH₄ and N₂O Emitted

Activity data for industrial, commercial, residential, and U.S. Territories and fuel type for each of these sectors were then multiplied by default Tier 1 emission factors to obtain emission estimates. Emission factors for the residential, commercial, and industrial sectors were taken from the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006). These N₂O emission factors by fuel type (equivalent across sectors) were also assumed for U.S. Territories. The CH₄ emission factors by fuel type for U.S. Territories were estimated based on the emission factor for the primary sector in which each fuel was combusted. Table A-66 provides emission factors used for each sector and fuel type. For the electric power sector, emissions were estimated by multiplying fossil fuel and wood consumption by technology- and

⁴⁴ U.S. Territories data also include combustion from mobile activities because data to allocate U.S. Territories’ energy use were unavailable. For this reason, CH₄ and N₂O emissions from combustion by U.S. Territories are only included in the stationary combustion totals.

⁴⁵ Though emissions from construction and farm use occur due to both stationary and mobile sources, detailed data was not available to determine the magnitude from each. Currently, these emissions are assumed to be predominantly from mobile sources.

fuel-specific Tier 2 IPCC emission factors shown in Table A-67. Emission factors were taken from U.S. EPA publications on emissions rates for combustion sources, and EPA’s Compilation of Air Pollutant Emission Factors, AP-42 (EPA 1997) for combined cycle natural gas units. The EPA factors were in large part used in the *2006 IPCC Guidelines* as the factors presented.

Estimates of NO_x, CO, and NMVOC Emissions

Emissions estimates for NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs were obtained from data published on the National Emission *Inventory* (NEI) Air Pollutant Emission Trends web site (EPA 2023b) and disaggregated based on EPA (2003).

For indirect greenhouse gases, the major source categories included coal, fuel oil, natural gas, wood, other fuels (i.e., bagasse, liquefied petroleum gases, coke, coke oven gas, and others), and stationary internal combustion, which includes emissions from internal combustion engines not used in transportation. EPA periodically estimates emissions of NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs by sector and fuel type using a “bottom-up” estimating procedure. In other words, the emissions were calculated either for individual sources (e.g., industrial boilers) or for many sources combined, using basic activity data (e.g., fuel consumption or deliveries) as indicators of emissions. The national activity data used to calculate the individual categories were obtained from various sources. Depending upon the category, these activity data may include fuel consumption or deliveries of fuel, tons of refuse burned, raw material processed, etc. Activity data were used in conjunction with emission factors that relate the quantity of emissions to the activity.

The basic calculation procedure for most source categories presented in EPA (2003) and EPA (2023b) is represented by the following equation:

Equation A-7: NO_x, CO, and NMVOC Emissions Estimates

$$E_{p,s} = A_s \times EF_{p,s} \times (1 - C_{p,s}/100)$$

where,

- E = Emissions
- p = Pollutant
- s = Source category
- A = Activity level
- EF = Emission factor
- C = Percent control efficiency

EPA currently derives the overall emission control efficiency of a category from a variety of sources, including published reports, the 1985 National Acid Precipitation and Assessment Program (NAPAP) emissions inventory, and other EPA databases. The U.S. approach for estimating emissions of NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs from stationary combustion as described above is similar to the methodology recommended by IPCC.

Table A-65: Fuel Consumption by Stationary Combustion for Calculating CH₄ and N₂O Emissions (Tbtu)

Fuel/End-Use Sector	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Coal	19,637	20,912	23,088	22,966	20,731	15,444	14,269	13,770	13,160	11,132	9,121	10,404	11,745
Residential	31	17	11	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Commercial	124	117	92	97	70	31	24	21	19	17	15	15	14
Industrial	1,668	1,557	1,362	1,246	993	732	662	615	569	517	448	450	450
Electric Power	16,261	17,466	20,220	20,737	19,133	14,138	12,996	12,622	12,053	10,181	8,229	9,498	8,885
U.S. Territories ^a	5	5	5	33	35	36	35	25	28	39	33	31	31
Petroleum	6,881	5,741	6,514	6,850	4,916	4,649	4,292	4,078	4,290	4,224	3,754	3,823	4,166
Residential	1,376	1,259	1,425	1,366	1,100	943	805	774	955	995	864	875	912
Commercial	1,022	724	767	761	695	941	839	815	741	815	780	799	931
Industrial	2,925	2,713	2,687	2,852	2,342	2,184	2,135	1,980	2,055	1,984	1,685	1,710	1,846
Electric Power	1,289	755	1,144	1,222	370	276	244	218	260	189	184	205	244
U.S. Territories ^a	268	290	491	649	408	306	270	292	278	241	241	234	234
Natural Gas	17,229	19,315	20,900	20,921	22,897	26,545	26,566	26,111	28,952	29,967	29,325	29,329	28,885
Residential	4,487	4,954	5,105	4,946	4,878	4,777	4,506	4,563	5,174	5,208	4,846	4,889	5,140
Commercial	2,680	3,096	3,252	3,073	3,165	3,316	3,224	3,273	3,638	3,647	3,279	3,409	3,633
Industrial	7,687	8,701	8,637	7,315	7,670	8,688	8,770	8,847	9,325	9,482	9,257	9,473	9,645
Electric Power	3,309	4,302	5,293	6,015	7,528	9,926	10,301	9,555	10,922	11,658	12,000	11,583	12,459
U.S. Territories ^a	0	0	13	24	28	57	64	48	62	71	50	74	52
Wood	2,216	2,370	2,262	2,137	2,217	2,312	2,227	2,185	2,262	2,237	1,970	1,989	2,012
Residential	580	520	420	430	541	513	445	430	525	546	345	344	422
Commercial	66	72	71	70	72	79	84	84	84	84	83	83	83
Industrial	1,442	1,652	1,636	1,452	1,409	1,476	1,474	1,442	1,432	1,407	1,356	1,366	1,308
Electric Power	129	125	134	185	196	244	224	229	221	201	185	197	198
U.S. Territories	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE

NE (Not Estimated)

^a U.S. Territories coal is assumed to be primarily consumed in the electric power sector, natural gas in the industrial sector, and petroleum in the transportation sector.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table A-66: CH₄ and N₂O Emission Factors by Fuel Type and Sector (g/GJ)^a

Fuel/End-Use Sector	CH ₄	N ₂ O
Coal		
Residential	300	1.5
Commercial	10	1.5
Industrial	10	1.5
U.S. Territories	1	1.5
Petroleum		
Residential	10	0.6
Commercial	10	0.6
Industrial	3	0.6
U.S. Territories	5	0.6
Natural Gas		
Residential	5	0.1
Commercial	5	0.1
Industrial	1	0.1
U.S. Territories	1	0.1
Wood		
Residential	300	4.0
Commercial	300	4.0
Industrial	30	4.0
U.S. Territories	NA	NA

NA (Not Applicable)

^a GJ (Gigajoule) = 10⁹ joules. One joule = 9.486×10⁻⁴ Btu.**Table A-67: CH₄ and N₂O Emission Factors by Technology Type and Fuel Type for the Electric Power Sector (g/GJ)^a**

Technology	Configuration	CH ₄	N ₂ O
Liquid Fuels			
Residual Fuel Oil/Shale Oil Boilers	Normal Firing	0.8	0.3
	Tangential Firing	0.8	0.3
Gas/Diesel Oil Boilers	Normal Firing	0.9	0.4
	Tangential Firing	0.9	0.4
Large Diesel Oil Engines >600 hp (447kW)		4.0	NA
Solid Fuels			
Pulverized Bituminous Combination Boilers	Dry Bottom, wall fired	0.7	5.8
	Dry Bottom, tangentially fired	0.7	1.4
	Wet bottom	0.9	1.4
Bituminous Spreader Stoker Boilers	With and without re-injection	1.0	0.7
	Bituminous Fluidized Bed Combustor	Circulating Bed	1.0
		Bubbling Bed	1.0
Bituminous Cyclone Furnace		0.2	0.6
Lignite Atmospheric Fluidized Bed		NA	71
Natural Gas			
Boilers		1.0	0.3
Gas-Fired Gas Turbines >3MW		3.7	1.3
Large Dual-Fuel Engines		258	NA
Combined Cycle		3.7	1.3
Peat			
Peat Fluidized Bed Combustion	Circulating Bed	3.0	7.0
	Bubbling Bed	3.0	3.0
Biomass			
Wood/Wood Waste Boilers		11.0	7.0
Wood Recovery Boilers		1.0	1.0

NA (Not Applicable)

^a Ibid.

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3.2. Methodology for Estimating Emissions of CH₄, N₂O, and Indirect Greenhouse Gases from Mobile Combustion and Methodology for and Supplemental Information on Transportation-Related Greenhouse Gas Emissions

Estimating CO₂ Emissions by Transportation Mode

Transportation-related CO₂ emissions, as presented in the CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion section of the Energy chapter, were calculated using the methodology described in Annex 2.1. This section provides additional information on the data sources and approach used for each transportation fuel type. As noted in Annex 2.1, CO₂ emissions estimates for the transportation sector were calculated directly for on-road diesel fuel and motor gasoline based on data sources for individual modes of transportation (considered a bottom-up approach). For most other fuel and energy types (aviation gasoline, residual fuel oil, natural gas, liquefied petroleum gas [LPG], and electricity), CO₂ emissions were calculated based on transportation sector-wide fuel consumption estimates from the Energy Information Administration (EIA 2023b and EIA 2023c) and apportioned to individual modes (considered a “top down” approach). Carbon dioxide emissions from commercial jet fuel use are obtained directly from the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA 2024) for the years 1990 through 2022.

Based on interagency discussions between the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), EIA, and the Federal Highway Administration (FHWA) beginning in 2005, it was agreed that use of “bottom up” data would be more accurate for diesel fuel and motor gasoline consumption in the transportation sector, based on the availability of reliable data sources. A “bottom up” diesel calculation was first implemented in the 1990 through 2005 *Inventory*, and a bottom-up gasoline calculation was introduced in the 1990 through 2006 *Inventory* for the calculation of emissions from on-road vehicles. On-road fuel consumption data from FHWA Table MF-21 were used to determine total on-road use of motor gasoline and diesel fuel. (FHWA 1996 through 2023). Ratios developed from EPA’s Motor Vehicle Emission Simulator (MOVES) output are then used to apportion FHWA fuel consumption data to vehicle type and fuel type.

A primary challenge to switching from a top-down approach to a bottom-up approach for the transportation sector relates to potential incompatibilities with national energy statistics. From a multi-sector national standpoint, EIA develops the most accurate estimate of total motor gasoline and diesel fuel supplied and consumed in the United States. EIA then allocates this total fuel consumption to each major end-use sector (residential, commercial, industrial and transportation) using data from EIA Monthly Energy Review for 1990-2022 for distillate fuel oil and FHWA for motor gasoline. However, the “bottom-up” approach used for the on-road and non-road fuel consumption estimate, as described above, is the most representative of the transportation sector’s share of the EIA total consumption. Therefore, for years in which there was a disparity between EIA’s fuel allocation estimate for the transportation sector and the “bottom-up” estimate, adjustments were made to other end-use sector fuel allocations (residential, commercial, and industrial) for the consumption of all sectors combined to equal the “top-down” EIA value.

In the case of motor gasoline, estimates of fuel use by recreational boats come from the nonroad component of EPA’s MOVES3 model (EPA 2022a), and these estimates, along with those from other sectors (e.g., commercial sector, industrial sector), were adjusted for years in which the bottom-up on-road motor gasoline consumption estimate exceeded the EIA estimate for total gasoline consumption of all sectors. Similarly, to ensure consistency with EIA’s total diesel estimate for all sectors, the diesel consumption totals for the residential, commercial, and industrial sectors were adjusted proportionately.

Estimates of diesel fuel consumption from rail were taken from: the Association of American Railroads (AAR 2008 through 2023) for Class I railroads, the American Public Transportation Association (APTA 2007 through 2023 and APTA 2006), FTA(2023) for years 2021 to 2022, and Gaffney (2007) for commuter rail, the Upper Great Plains Transportation Institute (Benson 2002 through 2004), Whorton (2006 through 2014), and Railinc (2014 through 2023) for Class II and III railroads, and the U.S. Department of Energy’s *Transportation Energy Data Book* (DOE 1993 through 2022) for passenger rail. Class II and III railroad diesel consumption is estimated by applying the historical average fuel usage per carload factor to yearly carloads. Estimates of diesel fuel consumption from ships and boats were taken from EIA’s *Fuel Oil and Kerosene Sales* (1991 through 2022). Data for 2021 and 2022 diesel fuel consumption for ships and boats was proxied.

As noted above, for fuels other than motor gasoline and diesel, EIA’s transportation sector total was apportioned to specific transportation sources. For jet fuel, estimates come from: FAA (2024) for domestic and international commercial aircraft, and DLA Energy (2022) for domestic and international military aircraft. Military fuel consumption was proxied

for 2022. General aviation jet fuel consumption is calculated as the difference between total jet fuel consumption as reported by EIA and the total consumption from commercial and military jet fuel consumption. Commercial jet fuel CO₂ estimates are obtained directly from the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA 2024), while CO₂ emissions from domestic military and general aviation jet fuel consumption is determined using a top-down approach. Domestic commercial jet fuel CO₂ from FAA is subtracted from total domestic jet fuel CO₂ emissions, and this remaining value is apportioned among domestic military and domestic general aviation based on their relative proportion of energy consumption. Estimates for biofuels, including ethanol and biodiesel, were discussed separately in Section 3.2 Carbon Emitted from Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels under the methodology for Estimating CO₂ from Fossil Combustion, and in Section 3.10 Wood Biomass and Ethanol Consumption, and were not apportioned to specific transportation sources. Consumption estimates for biofuels were calculated based on data from the Energy Information Administration (EIA 2023b).

Table A-68 displays estimated fuel consumption by fuel and vehicle type. Table A-69 displays estimated energy consumption by fuel and vehicle type. The values in both tables correspond to the figures used to calculate CO₂ emissions from transportation. Except as noted above, they are estimated based on EIA transportation sector energy estimates by fuel type, with activity data used to apportion fuel consumption to the various modes of transport. The motor gasoline and diesel fuel consumption volumes published by EIA and FHWA include ethanol blended with gasoline and biodiesel blended with diesel. Biofuels blended with conventional fuels were subtracted from these consumption totals in order to be consistent with IPCC methodological guidance and UNFCCC reporting obligations, for which net carbon fluxes in biogenic carbon reservoirs in croplands are accounted for in the estimates for the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter, not in Energy chapter totals. Ethanol fuel volumes were removed from motor gasoline consumption estimates for years 1990 through 2022. Biodiesel fuel volumes were removed from diesel fuel consumption volumes for years 2001 through 2022, as there was negligible use of biodiesel as a diesel blending component prior to 2001. The subtraction or removal of biofuels blended into motor gasoline and diesel were conducted following the methodology outlined in Step 2 (“Remove Biofuels from Petroleum”) of the EIA’s *Monthly Energy Review* (MER) Section 12 notes.

To remove the volume of biodiesel blended into diesel fuel, the 2009 to 2022 biodiesel and renewable diesel fuel consumption estimates from EIA (2023b) were subtracted from the transportation sector’s total diesel fuel consumption volume (for both the “top-down” EIA and “bottom-up” FHWA estimates). To remove the ethanol blended into motor gasoline, ethanol energy consumption data sourced from MER *Table 10.2b - Renewable Energy Consumption: Industrial and Transportation Sectors* (EIA 2023b) were subtracted from the total EIA and FHWA transportation motor gasoline energy consumption estimates. Total ethanol and biodiesel consumption estimates are in Table A-70.⁴⁶

⁴⁶ Note that the refinery and blender net volume inputs of renewable diesel fuel sourced from EIA’s Petroleum Supply Annual (PSA) differs from the biodiesel volume presented in Table A-70. The PSA data is representative of the amount of biodiesel that refineries and blenders added to diesel fuel to make low level biodiesel blends. This is the appropriate value to subtract from total diesel fuel volume, as it represents the amount of biofuel blended into diesel to create low-level biodiesel blends. The biodiesel consumption value presented in Table A-68 is representative of the total biodiesel consumed and includes biodiesel components in all types of fuel formulations, from low level (<5%) to high level (6–20%, 100%) blends of biodiesel. This value is sourced from MER Table 10.4 and is calculated as biodiesel production plus biodiesel net imports minus biodiesel stock exchange.

Fuel/Vehicle Type	1990	2000	2010 ^a	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
LPG^f	251	130	50	50	49	67	83	109	129	136	138	137	95	107	107
Passenger Cars	1	0.3	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Light-Duty Trucks	23	9	2	1	0	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0
Medium- and Heavy-Duty Trucks	227	87	11	12	9	12	11	13	14	13	18	16	9	8	6
Buses	+	34	37	38	40	54	70	95	114	122	118	120	85	98	101
Electricity^{h,i}	4,751	5,382	7,742	7,765	7,530	8,079	8,515	8,739	9,062	9,631	10,879	11,842	10,976	12,889	16,174
Passenger Cars	+	+	23	86	202	441	737	1,076	1,426	1,845	2,721	3,533	3,523	4,612	6,268
Light-Duty Trucks	+	+	3	2	4	9	15	21	125	245	405	555	759	1,751	3,027
Buses	+	+	4	5	4	4	5	5	15	18	89	122	146	192	280
Rail	4,751	5,382	7,712	7,672	7,320	7,625	7,758	7,637	7,497	7,523	7,665	7,632	6,548	6,334	6,599

+ Does not exceed 0.05 units (trillion cubic feet, million kilowatt-hours, or million gallons, as specified).

^a Fuel is allocated to vehicle classes using MOVES3 ratios of fuel in each vehicle class to total fuel.

^b Figures do not include ethanol blended in motor gasoline or biodiesel blended into distillate fuel oil. Net carbon fluxes associated with ethanol are accounted for in the Land Use, Land-Use Change and Forestry chapter. This table is calculated with the heat content for gasoline without ethanol (from Table A.1 in the EIA Monthly Energy Review) rather than the annually variable quantity-weighted heat content for gasoline with ethanol, which varies by year.

^c Gasoline and diesel highway vehicle fuel consumption estimates are based on data from FHWA Highway Statistics Table MF-21, MF-27, and ratios developed from MOVES3 to apportion FHWA fuel consumption data to vehicle type and fuel type.

^d Fluctuations in recreational boat gasoline estimates reflect the use of this category to reconcile bottom-up values with EIA total gasoline estimates.

^e Class II and Class III diesel consumption data for 2014-2022 is estimated by applying the historical average fuel usage per carload factor to the annual number of carloads.

^f Estimated based on EIA transportation sector energy estimates by fuel type, with bottom-up activity data used for apportionment to modes. Transportation sector natural gas and LPG consumption are based on data from EIA (2023c). In previous *Inventory* years, data from DOE TEDB was used to estimate each vehicle class's share of the total natural gas and LPG consumption. Since TEDB does not include estimates for natural gas use by medium and heavy-duty trucks or LPG use by passenger cars, EIA Alternative Fuel Vehicle Data (Browning 2022b) is now used to determine each vehicle class's share of the total natural gas and LPG consumption.

^g Fluctuations in reported fuel consumption may reflect data collection problems.

^h Million kilowatt-hours

ⁱ Electricity consumption by passenger cars, light-duty trucks (SUVs), and buses is based on plug-in electric vehicle sales data and engine efficiencies, as outlined in Browning (2022b).

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table A-69: Energy Consumption by Fuel and Vehicle Type (TBtu)

Fuel/Vehicle Type	1990	2000	2010 ^a	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Motor Gasoline^{a,b}	13,464	15,663	14,899	14,576	14,523	14,542	15,103	14,999	15,353	15,303	15,528	15,381	13,260	14,560	14,358
Passenger Cars	8,604	7,735	6,428	5,988	5,261	5,385	5,567	5,436	5,473	5,308	5,414	5,380	4,643	5,102	5,038
Light-Duty Trucks	3,982	7,151	7,885	8,037	8,698	8,587	8,941	8,968	9,258	9,357	9,450	9,323	8,007	8,774	8,626
Motorcycles	47	61	88	87	98	95	97	94	100	99	103	104	93	105	105
Buses	30	20	17	19	22	25	29	30	32	35	38	39	35	40	41
Medium- and Heavy-Duty Trucks	601	495	316	288	290	298	320	321	341	353	371	383	342	388	395
Recreational Boats ^c	201	201	163	158	155	152	149	149	150	151	151	152	140	150	153
Distillate Fuel Oil (Diesel Fuel)^{a,b}	3,555	5,442	5,729	5,768	5,751	5,795	5,992	6,155	6,104	6,288	6,428	6,393	6,036	6,484	6,431
Passenger Cars	128	42	28	32	33	34	37	44	42	40	38	36	34	37	36
Light-Duty Trucks	114	263	382	415	451	418	415	424	417	419	421	421	407	450	456
Buses	150	232	195	206	218	220	240	251	250	266	275	279	267	289	289
Medium- and Heavy-Duty Trucks	2,555	4,108	4,451	4,389	4,369	4,437	4,606	4,688	4,724	4,886	5,010	5,031	4,768	5,128	5,066
Recreational Boats	37	37	36	35	35	34	34	36	36	37	38	39	35	38	40
Ships and Non-Recreational Boats	91	190	112	149	115	117	100	177	147	135	126	101	103	105	105
Rail ^d	480	569	525	542	531	536	560	535	487	504	520	486	421	438	439
Jet Fuel^e	2,588	2,699	2,096	2,029	1,984	2,036	2,053	2,181	2,298	2,377	2,385	2,496	1,670	2,114	2,282
Commercial Aircraft	1,562	1,981	1,611	1,629	1,611	1,624	1,638	1,692	1,711	1,819	1,843	1,944	1,298	1,691	1,843
General Aviation Aircraft	532	419	309	252	220	271	236	314	426	399	389	398	224	265	284
Military Aircraft	494	299	177	148	154	141	179	175	161	159	154	154	149	157	155
Aviation Gasoline	45	36	27	27	25	22	22	21	20	21	22	23	20	22	22
General Aviation Aircraft	45	36	27	27	25	22	22	21	20	21	22	23	20	22	22
Residual Fuel Oil^{e,f}	300	443	272	258	211	201	77	57	172	219	186	193	97	323	305
Ships and Non-Recreational Boats	300	443	272	258	211	201	77	57	172	219	186	193	97	323	305
Natural Gas^e	679	672	719	734	780	887	760	745	757	799	962	1,114	1,109	1,232	1,326
Passenger Cars	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Light-Duty Trucks	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Medium- and Heavy-Duty Trucks	+	+	+	+	+	+	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	3
Buses	+	3	6	6	6	7	8	8	8	9	9	10	11	12	12
Pipelines	679	668	712	727	773	880	751	736	748	789	950	1,102	1,095	1,218	1,311

Fuel/Vehicle Type	1990	2000	2010 ^a	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
LPG^e	23	12	5	5	5	6	8	10	12	12	13	12	9	10	10
Passenger Cars	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Light-Duty Trucks	3	1	0	0	+	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	+	+
Medium- and Heavy-Duty Trucks	21	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1
Buses	+	3	3	3	4	5	6	9	10	11	11	11	8	9	9
Electricity^g	16	18	26	26	26	28	29	30	31	33	37	40	37	44	55
Passenger Cars	+	+	+	+	1	2	3	4	5	6	9	12	12	16	21
Light-Duty Trucks	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	1	1	2	3	6	10
Buses	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	1	1
Rail	16	18	26	26	25	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	22	22	23
Total	20,670	24,986	23,774	23,422	23,305	23,518	24,044	24,196	24,748	25,052	25,561	25,653	22,238	24,788	24,790

+ Does not exceed 0.5 TBtu

^a Figures do not include ethanol blended in motor gasoline or biodiesel blended into distillate fuel oil. Net carbon fluxes associated with ethanol are accounted for in the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter.

^b Gasoline and diesel highway vehicle fuel consumption estimates are based on data from FHWA Highway Statistics Table MF-21, MF-27, and ratios developed from MOVES3 to apportion FHWA fuel consumption data to vehicle type and fuel type.

^c Fluctuations in recreational boat gasoline estimates reflect the use of this category to reconcile bottom-up values with EIA total gasoline estimates.

^d Class II and Class III diesel consumption data for 2014 through 2022 is estimated by applying the historical average fuel usage per carload factor to the annual number of carloads.

^e Estimated based on EIA transportation sector energy estimates, with bottom-up data used for apportionment to modes. Transportation sector natural gas and LPG consumption are based on data from EIA (2023b). In previous *Inventory* years, data from DOE TEDB was used to estimate each vehicle class's share of the total natural gas and LPG consumption. Since TEDB does not include estimates for natural gas use by medium and heavy-duty trucks or LPG use by passenger cars, EIA Alternative Fuel Vehicle Data (Browning 2022b) is now used to determine each vehicle class's share of the total natural gas and LPG consumption. These changes were first incorporated in the 2016 *Inventory* and apply to the 1990 through 2022 time period.

^f Fluctuations in reported fuel consumption may reflect data collection problems. Residual fuel oil for ships and boats data is based on EIA (2023b).

^g Electricity consumption by passenger cars, light-duty trucks (SUVs), and buses is based on plug-in electric vehicle sales data and engine efficiencies, as outlined in Browning (2022b). In *Inventory* years prior to 2017, CO₂ emissions from electric vehicle charging were allocated to the residential and commercial sectors. They are now allocated to the transportation sector. These changes were first incorporated in the 2017 *Inventory* and apply to the 2010 through 2022 time period.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table A-70: Transportation Sector Biofuel Consumption by Fuel Type (million gallons)

Fuel Type	1990	2000	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Ethanol	699	1,556	11,833	11,972	11,997	12,154	12,758	12,793	13,261	13,401	13,573	13,589	11,744	13,015	12,943
Biodiesel	NA	NA	260	886	899	1,429	1,417	1,494	2,085	1,985	1,904	1,813	1,873	1,709	1,608

NA (Not Applicable)

Estimates of CH₄ and N₂O Emissions

Mobile source emissions of greenhouse gases other than CO₂ are reported by transport mode (e.g., road, rail, aviation, and waterborne), vehicle type, and fuel type. Emissions estimates of CH₄ and N₂O were derived using a methodology like that outlined in the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006).

Activity data were obtained from several U.S. government agencies and other publications. Depending on the category, basic activity data included fuel consumption and vehicle miles traveled (VMT). These estimates were then multiplied by emission factors, expressed as grams per unit of fuel consumed or per vehicle mile.

Methodology for On-Road Gasoline and Diesel Vehicles

Step 1: Determine Vehicle Miles Traveled by Vehicle Type, Fuel Type, and Model Year

Total VMT were obtained from the FHWA's *Highway Statistics* (FHWA 1996 through 2023). As these vehicle categories are not fuel specific, VMT for each vehicle type was disaggregated by fuel type (gasoline, diesel) to ensure that the appropriate emission factors were applied. VMT from *Highway Statistics* Table VM-1 (FHWA 1996 through 2023) was allocated to fuel types (gasoline, diesel, other) using EPA's MOVES3 model ratios of VMT per vehicle class to total VMT. This corrects historical inconsistencies in vehicle type definitions in FHWA data⁴⁷ (Browning 2022a). VMT for alternative fuel vehicles (AFVs) was calculated separately, and the methodology is explained in the following section on AFVs. Estimates of VMT from AFVs were then subtracted from the appropriate total VMT estimates to develop the final VMT estimates by vehicle/fuel type category.⁴⁸ The resulting national VMT estimates for gasoline and diesel on-road vehicles are presented in Table A-71 and Table A-72, respectively.

Total VMT for each on-road category (i.e., gasoline passenger cars, light-duty gasoline trucks, heavy-duty gasoline vehicles, diesel passenger cars, light-duty diesel trucks, medium- and heavy-duty diesel trucks, heavy-duty diesel buses, and motorcycles) were distributed across 30 model years shown for 2022 in Table A-73.

This distribution was derived by weighting the appropriate age distribution of the U.S. vehicle fleet according to vehicle registrations by the average annual age-specific vehicle mileage accumulation of U.S. vehicles. Age distribution values were obtained from EPA's MOBILE6 model for all years before 1999 (EPA 2000) and EPA's MOVES3 model for years 1999 forward (EPA 2022).⁴⁹ Age-specific vehicle mileage accumulations were also obtained from EPA's MOVES3 model (EPA 2022).⁵⁰

Step 2: Allocate VMT Data to Control Technology Type

VMT by vehicle type for each model year was distributed across various control technologies as shown in Table A-79 through Table A-82. The categories "EPA Tier 0" and "EPA Tier 1" were used instead of the early three-way catalyst and advanced three-way catalyst categories, respectively, as defined in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines*. EPA Tier 0, EPA Tier 1, EPA Tier 2, and EPA Tier 3 refer to U.S. emission regulations and California Air Resources Board (CARB) LEV, CARB LEVII, and CARB LEVIII refer to California emissions regulations, rather than control technologies; however, each does correspond to particular combinations of control technologies and engine design. EPA Tier 2 and Tier 3 and its predecessors EPA Tier 1 and Tier 0 as well as CARB LEV, LEVII, and LEVIII apply to vehicles equipped with three-way catalysts. The introduction of "early three-way catalysts," and "advanced three-way catalysts," as described in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines*, roughly correspond to the introduction of EPA Tier 0 and EPA Tier 1 regulations (EPA 1998).⁵¹ EPA Tier 2 regulations affect vehicles produced starting in 2004 and are responsible for a noticeable decrease in N₂O emissions compared to EPA Tier 1 emissions technology (EPA 1999). EPA Tier 3 regulations affect vehicles produced

⁴⁷ VMT is now allocated to vehicle classes using MOVES3 ratios of VMT in each vehicle class to total VMT.

⁴⁸ In *Inventories* through 2002, gasoline-electric hybrid vehicles were part of an "alternative fuel and advanced technology" category. However, vehicles are now separated into gasoline, diesel, or alternative fuel categories, and gas-electric hybrids are now within the gasoline vehicle category.

⁴⁹ Age distributions were held constant for the period 1990 to 1998 and reflect a 25-year vehicle age span. EPA (2022) provides a variable age distribution and 31-year vehicle age span beginning in year 1999.

⁵⁰ The updated vehicle distribution and mileage accumulation rates by vintage obtained from the MOVES3 model resulted in a decrease in emissions due to more miles driven by newer light-duty gasoline vehicles.

⁵¹ For further description, see the "Definitions of Emission Control Technologies and Standards" section below.

starting in 2017 and are fully phased in by 2025. CARB LEVII regulations affect California vehicles produced starting in 2004 while ARB LEVIII affect California vehicles produced starting in 2015.

EPA estimated emission control technology assignments for light- and heavy-duty conventional fuel vehicles for model years 1972 (when regulations began to take effect) through 1995 in EPA (1998). Assignments for 1996 and 1997 were estimated given the fact that EPA Tier 1 standards for light-duty vehicles were fully phased in by 1996. Assignments for 1998 through 2022 were determined using confidential engine family sales data submitted to EPA (EPA 2023b). Vehicle classes and emission standard tiers to which each engine family was certified were taken from annual certification test results and data (EPA 2023a). This information was used to determine the fraction of sales of each class of vehicle that met EPA Tier 0, EPA Tier 1, EPA Tier 2, EPA Tier 3 and CARB LEV, CARB LEVII, and CARB LEVIII standards. Tier 2 began initial phase-in by 2004. EPA Tier 3 began initial phase-in by 2017 and CARB LEV III standards began initial phase-in by 2015.

Step 3: Determine CH₄ and N₂O Emission Factors by Vehicle, Fuel, and Control Technology Type

Methane and N₂O emission factors (in grams of CH₄ and N₂O per mile) for gasoline and diesel on-road vehicles utilizing EPA Tier 2, EPA Tier 3, and CARB LEV, LEVII, and LEVIII technologies were developed by Browning (2019). Motorcycle emission factors were updated for advanced technology motorcycles (Browning 2020). These emission factors were calculated based upon annual certification data submitted to EPA by vehicle manufacturers. Emission factors for earlier standards and technologies were developed by ICF (2004) based on EPA, CARB, and Environment and Climate Change Canada laboratory test results of different vehicle and control technology types. The EPA, CARB and Environment and Climate Change Canada tests were designed following the Federal Test Procedure (FTP). The procedure covers three separate driving segments since vehicles emit varying amounts of GHGs depending on the driving segment. These driving segments are: (1) a transient driving cycle that includes cold start and running emissions, (2) a cycle that represents running emissions only, and (3) a transient driving cycle that includes hot start and running emissions. For each test run, a bag was affixed to the tailpipe of the vehicle and the exhaust was collected; the content of this bag was later analyzed to determine quantities of gases present. The emission characteristics of driving Segment 2 was used to define running emissions. Running emissions were subtracted from the total FTP emissions to determine start emissions. These were recombined based upon MOBILE 6.2's ratio of start to running emissions for each vehicle class to approximate average driving characteristics.

Step 4: Determine the Amount of CH₄ and N₂O Emitted by Vehicle, Fuel, and Control Technology Type

Emissions of CH₄ and N₂O were calculated by multiplying total VMT by vehicle, fuel, and control technology type by the emission factors developed in Step 3.

Methodology for Alternative Fuel Vehicles (AFVs)

Step 1: Determine Vehicle Miles Traveled by Vehicle and Fuel Type

VMT for alternative fuel and advanced technology vehicles were calculated from "Updated Methodology for Estimating CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Highway Vehicle Alternative Fuel Vehicles" (Browning 2017) and modified with "Updated Methodology for Estimating CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Highway Vehicle Alternative Fuel Vehicles" (Browning 2022b). Alternative fuels include compressed natural gas (CNG), liquid natural gas (LNG), liquefied petroleum gas (LPG), ethanol, methanol, biodiesel, hydrogen, and electricity. Most of the vehicles that use these fuels run on an internal combustion engine (ICE) powered by the alternative fuel, although many of the vehicles can run on either the alternative fuel or gasoline (or diesel), or some combination.⁵² Except for electric vehicles and plug-in hybrid vehicles, the alternative fuel vehicle VMT were calculated using the Energy Information Administration (EIA) Alternative Fuel Vehicle Data (2023a). The EIA data provides vehicle counts and fuel use for fleet vehicles used by electricity providers, federal agencies, natural gas providers, propane providers, state agencies and transit agencies, for calendar years 2003 through 2022. For 1992 to 2002, EIA data tables were used to estimate fuel consumption and vehicle counts by vehicle type. These tables include total vehicle fuel use and vehicle counts by fuel and calendar year for the United States over the period 1992 through 2010. Breakdowns by vehicle type for 1992 through 2002 (both fuel consumed and vehicle counts) were assumed to be

⁵² Fuel types used in combination depend on the vehicle class. For light-duty vehicles, gasoline is generally blended with ethanol and diesel is blended with biodiesel; dual-fuel vehicles can run on gasoline or an alternative fuel – either natural gas or LPG – but not at the same time, while flex-fuel vehicles are designed to run on E85 (85 percent ethanol) or gasoline, or any mixture of the two in between. Heavy-duty vehicles are more likely to run on diesel fuel, natural gas, or LPG.

at the same ratio as for 2003 where data existed. For 1990 and 1991, fuel consumed by alternative fuel and vehicle type were extrapolated based on a regression analysis using the best curve fit based upon R^2 using the nearest five years of data. For 2018 to 2022, electric, plug-in electric and fuel cell vehicles were determined from confidential sales data while electric and fuel cell heavy-duty bus counts were determined from Smart Cities Dive (2022). A regression analysis of vehicle counts was used for other fuels for the 2018 to 2022 period. VMT for those vehicles were assumed to be the same as the baseline conventional fueled vehicle of the same class.

Counts of electric vehicles (EVs) and plug-in hybrid-electric vehicles (PHEVs) were taken from data compiled by Hybridcars.com from 2010 to 2018 (Hybridcars.com 2019). For 2019 through 2022, EV and PHEV sales were taken from Wards Intelligence U.S. Light Vehicle Sales Report (Wards Intelligence 2022). EVs were divided into cars and trucks using vehicle type information from fueleconomy.gov publications (EPA 2010-2022). Fuel use per vehicle for personal EVs and PHEVs were calculated from fuel economies listed in the fueleconomy.gov publications multiplied by the average light duty car and truck mileage accumulation rates determined from MOVES3. PHEV VMT was divided into gasoline and electric VMT using the Society of Automotive Engineers Utility Factor Standard J2841 (SAE 2010).

Because AFVs run on different fuel types, their fuel use characteristics are not directly comparable. Accordingly, fuel economy for each vehicle type is expressed in gasoline equivalent terms, i.e., how much gasoline contains the equivalent amount of energy as the alternative fuel. Energy economy ratios (the ratio of the gasoline equivalent fuel economy of a given technology to that of conventional gasoline or diesel vehicles) were taken from the Argonne National Laboratory's GREET2022 model (ANL 2022). These ratios were used to estimate fuel economy in miles per gasoline gallon equivalent for each alternative fuel and vehicle type. Energy use per fuel type was then divided among the various weight categories and vehicle technologies that use that fuel. Total VMT per vehicle type for each calendar year was then determined by dividing the energy usage by the fuel economy. For AFVs capable of running on both/either traditional or alternative fuels, the VMT given reflects only those miles driven that were powered by the alternative fuel, as explained in Browning (2017). Note that there was an impact of COVID-19 pandemic related declines in travel in 2020. Gasoline VMT was down 11.1 percent and diesel VMT was down 9.8 percent from 2019. For 2021, AFV VMT was adjusted based on the EIA trend in gasoline and diesel consumption for transportation between 2020 and 2021. The EIA data show that gasoline use increased by 9.6 percent between 2020 and 2021 while diesel use increased by 5.1 percent. VMT estimates for AFVs by vehicle category (passenger car, light-duty truck, medium-duty and heavy-duty vehicles) are shown in Table A-72, while more detailed estimates of VMT by control technology are shown Table A-73.

Step 2: Determine CH₄ and N₂O Emission Factors by Vehicle and Alternative Fuel Type

Methane and N₂O emission factors for alternative fuel vehicles (AFVs) were calculated using Argonne National Laboratory's GREET model (ANL 2022) and are reported in Browning (2018a). These emission factors are shown in Table A-84 and Table A-85.

Step 3: Determine the Amount of CH₄ and N₂O Emitted by Vehicle and Fuel Type

Emissions of CH₄ and N₂O were calculated by multiplying total VMT for each vehicle and fuel type (Step 1) by the appropriate emission factors (Step 2).

Methodology for Non-Road Mobile Sources

Methane and N₂O emissions from non-road mobile sources were estimated by applying emission factors to the amount of fuel consumed by mode and vehicle type.

Activity data for non-road vehicles include annual fuel consumption statistics by transportation mode and fuel type, as shown in Table A-78. Consumption data for ships and boats (i.e., vessel bunkering) were obtained from DHS (2008) and EIA (1991 through 2022) for distillate fuel, and DHS (2008) and EIA (2023b) for residual fuel; marine transport fuel consumption data for U.S. Territories (EIA 2017) were added to domestic consumption, and this total was reduced by the amount of fuel used for international bunkers.⁵³ Fuel consumption data and emissions for ships and non-recreational boats are not further disaggregated by vessel type or vocation. Gasoline consumption by recreational boats was obtained from the nonroad component of EPA's MOVES3 model (EPA 2022). Annual diesel consumption for Class I rail was obtained from the Association of American Railroads (AAR 2008 through 2023), diesel consumption from commuter rail was obtained from APTA (2007 through 2023) and Gaffney (2007), and consumption by Class II and III rail was

⁵³ See International Bunker Fuels section of the Energy chapter.

provided by Benson (2002 through 2004) and Whorton (2006 through 2014).⁵⁴ It is estimated that an average of 41 gallons of diesel consumption per Class II and III carload originated from 2000-2009 based on carload data reported from AAR (2008 through 2023) and fuel consumption data provided by Whorton, D. (2006 through 2014). Class II and Class III diesel consumption for 2014-2022 is estimated by multiplying this average historical fuel usage per carload factor by the number of shortline carloads originated each year (Raillinc 2014 through 2023). Diesel consumption by commuter and intercity rail was obtained from DOE (1993 through 2022). Data for 2021 and 2022 was obtained from the National Transit Database “Fuel and Energy” table (FTA 2023). Diesel consumption for Intercity Rail for 2019 through 2022 was obtained from the Bureau of Transportation Statistics “Amtrak Fuel Consumption and Travel Data” table. Data on the consumption of jet fuel and aviation gasoline in aircraft were obtained from EIA (2023a) and FAA (2022), as described in Annex 2.1: Methodology for Estimating Emissions of CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion and were reduced by the amount allocated to international bunker fuels (DLA 2022 and FAA 2022). Pipeline fuel consumption was obtained from EIA (2023c) (note: pipelines are a transportation source but are stationary, not mobile sources). Data on fuel consumption by non-transportation mobile sources were obtained from the Nonroad component of EPA’s MOVES3 model (EPA 2022) for gasoline and diesel powered equipment, and from FHWA (1996 through 2023) for gasoline consumption by off-road trucks used in the agriculture, industrial, commercial, and construction sectors.⁵⁵ Specifically, this *Inventory* uses FHWA’s Agriculture, Construction, and Commercial/Industrial MF-24 fuel volumes along with the MOVES-Nonroad model gasoline volumes to estimate non-road mobile source CH₄ and N₂O emissions for these categories. For agriculture, the MF-24 gasoline volume is used directly because it includes both off-road trucks and equipment. For construction and commercial/industrial gasoline estimates, the 2014 and older MF-24 volumes represented off-road trucks only; therefore, the MOVES-Nonroad gasoline volumes for construction and commercial/industrial are added to the respective categories in the *Inventory*. Beginning in 2015, this addition is no longer necessary since the FHWA updated its method for estimating on-road and non-road gasoline consumption. Among the method updates, FHWA now incorporates MOVES-Nonroad equipment gasoline volumes in the construction and commercial/industrial categories.

Since the nonroad component of EPA’s MOVES3 model does not account for the COVID-19 pandemic and associated restrictions, fuel consumption for non-transportation mobile sources for 2021 were developed by adjusting 2019 and 2020 consumption. Sector specific adjustments were applied to the 2019 consumption for agricultural equipment (-1.6 percent) and airport equipment (-38 percent) to estimate 2020 volumes. An adjustment factor for agricultural equipment was derived using employment data from the Bureau of Labor and Statistics (BLS 2022). An adjustment factor for airport equipment was derived based on the decline in commercial aviation fuel consumption. For all other nonroad equipment sectors, a 7.7 percent reduction factor was applied to 2019 values to estimate 2020. This is based on the reduction in transportation diesel consumption from 2019 to 2020 (EIA 2023b). In a similar fashion, trends in all these variables between 2020 and 2021 were used to estimate 2021 values.

Emissions of CH₄ and N₂O from non-road mobile sources were calculated using the updated 2006 IPCC Tier 3 guidance and estimates of activity from EPA’s MOVES3 model. CH₄ and N₂O emission factors were calculated from engine certification data by engine and fuel type and weighted by activity estimates calculated by MOVES3 to determine overall emission factors in grams per kg of fuel consumed by fuel type (Browning 2020).

Estimates of NO_x, CO, and NMVOC Emissions

The emission estimates of NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs from mobile combustion (transportation) were obtained from EPA’s National Emission *Inventory* (NEI) Air Pollutant Emission Trends web site (EPA 2023c). This EPA report provides emission estimates for these gases by fuel type using a procedure whereby emissions were calculated using basic activity data, such as amount of fuel delivered or miles traveled, as indicators of emissions. Emissions for heavy-duty diesel trucks and heavy-duty diesel buses were calculated by distributing the total heavy-duty diesel vehicle emissions in the ratio of VMT for each individual category.

⁵⁴ Diesel consumption from Class II and Class III railroad were unavailable for 2014-2022. Diesel consumption data for 2014-2022 is estimated by applying the historical average fuel usage per carload factor to the annual number of carloads.

⁵⁵ “Non-transportation mobile sources” are defined as any vehicle or equipment not used on the traditional road system, but excluding aircraft, rail and watercraft. This category includes snowmobiles, golf carts, riding lawn mowers, agricultural equipment, and trucks used for off-road purposes, among others. This category is similar to the IPCC’s “Off-road” category (1 A 3 e ii) described in Chapter 3: Mobile Combustion *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories*, in Table 3.1.1.1.

Table A-71: Vehicle Miles Traveled for Gasoline On-Road Vehicles (billion miles)

Year	Passenger Cars ^b	Light-Duty Trucks ^b	Heavy-Duty Vehicles ^{a,b}	Motorcycles ^b
1990	1,455.0	427.7	44.3	11.4
1991	1,441.0	464.8	43.9	11.5
1992	1,456.9	513.5	44.5	11.8
1993	1,454.2	558.2	44.5	12.0
1994	1,457.3	607.3	44.7	12.3
1995	1,461.0	659.4	45.0	12.5
1996	1,461.5	712.7	45.1	12.8
1997	1,467.4	771.7	45.4	13.1
1998	1,467.7	831.0	45.5	13.4
1999	1,460.2	888.9	45.4	13.6
2000	1,467.2	939.7	42.3	12.2
2001	1,470.3	978.0	41.1	11.1
2002	1,481.3	1,021.7	40.7	11.2
2003	1,473.4	1,053.2	40.8	11.4
2004	1,478.1	1,118.6	38.5	15.0
2005	1,464.9	1,156.1	35.8	13.8
2006	1,436.5	1,185.5	38.1	19.2
2007	1,430.3	1,203.3	35.2	21.4
2008	1,403.8	1,171.4	36.2	20.8
2009	1,397.6	1,181.1	34.0	20.8
2010	1,391.1	1,202.7	30.6	18.5
2011	1,320.1	1,272.9	27.7	18.6
2012	1,191.3	1,408.8	27.8	21.4
2013	1,213.9	1,402.1	27.5	20.4
2014	1,213.4	1,435.0	27.6	20.0
2015	1,219.1	1,494.9	27.2	19.6
2016	1,225.2	1,556.4	27.5	20.5
2017	1,200.1	1,606.5	28.0	20.2
2018	1,210.9	1,613.6	28.1	20.4
2019	1,216.7	1,616.5	28.5	20.5
2020	1,082.8	1,432.6	25.3	18.2
2021	1,168.4	1,541.9	27.5	19.7
2022	1,183.5	1,552.5	28.5	20.1

^a Heavy-Duty Vehicles includes Medium-Duty Trucks, Heavy-Duty Trucks, and Buses.

^b VMT is now allocated to vehicle classes using MOVES3 ratios.

Notes: In 2015, EIA changed its methods for estimating AFV fuel consumption. These methodological changes included how vehicle counts are estimated, moving from estimates based on modeling to one that is based on survey data. EIA now publishes data about fuel use and number of vehicles for only four types of AFV fleets: federal government, state government, transit agencies, and fuel providers. These changes were first incorporated in the 1990 through 2014 *Inventory* and apply to the 1990 through 2022 time period. This resulted in large reductions in AFV VMT, thus leading to a shift in VMT to conventional on-road vehicle classes. Gasoline and diesel highway vehicle mileage are based on data from FHWA Highway Statistics Table VM-1 (FHWA 1996 through 2023). VMT estimates were then allocated using EPA's MOVES3 model ratios of VMT per vehicle class to total VMT.

Source: Derived from FHWA (1996 through 2023), DOE (1990 through 2022), Browning (2022a), Browning (2018a), and Browning (2017).

Table A-72: Vehicle Miles Traveled for Diesel On-Road Vehicles (billion miles)

Year	Passenger Cars ^b	Light-Duty Trucks ^b	Heavy-Duty Trucks ^{a,b}	Heavy-Duty Buses ^b
1990	40.8	19.8	136.4	8.3
1991	38.1	21.2	142.2	8.7
1992	36.0	23.2	151.3	9.2
1993	33.3	25.0	158.9	9.7
1994	30.6	26.9	167.5	10.2
1995	27.7	29.0	176.7	10.7
1996	24.7	31.1	186.0	11.3
1997	21.6	33.5	196.4	11.9
1998	18.1	35.8	206.7	12.5
1999	14.5	38.1	216.4	13.1
2000	12.5	39.4	219.7	13.0
2001	11.3	41.5	231.4	11.4
2002	9.8	43.1	234.7	11.7
2003	8.7	44.7	245.3	11.6
2004	7.9	48.1	245.5	11.8
2005	7.5	49.6	248.5	11.5
2006	7.1	51.7	260.9	12.3
2007	6.3	51.4	266.8	12.7
2008	5.8	49.6	272.5	12.9
2009	6.1	48.7	252.4	12.5
2010	6.8	47.9	254.4	11.9
2011	7.3	49.2	234.4	11.9
2012	7.8	54.7	236.0	12.7
2013	8.2	50.6	238.7	12.9
2014	8.7	50.0	242.8	13.6
2015	10.6	50.8	243.4	13.8
2016	9.7	52.0	247.1	13.9
2017	9.2	53.8	256.8	14.6
2018	8.7	55.6	262.1	14.9
2019	8.5	58.5	268.4	15.2
2020	7.5	55.1	240.3	13.0
2021	8.2	63.1	261.5	14.2
2022	8.8	70.9	270.1	14.8

^a Heavy-Duty Trucks includes Medium-Duty Trucks and Heavy-Duty Trucks.

^b VMT is now allocated to vehicle classes using MOVES3 ratios.

Notes: Gasoline and diesel highway vehicle mileage are based on data from FHWA Highway Statistics Table VM-1 (FHWA 1996 through 2023). VMT estimates were then allocated using EPA's MOVES3 model ratios of VMT per vehicle class to total VMT.

Sources: Derived from FHWA (1996 through 2023), DOE (1993 through 2022), and Browning (2017), Browning (2018a), Browning (2022a).

Table A-73: Vehicle Miles Traveled for Alternative Fuel On-Road Vehicles (billion miles)

Year	Passenger Cars	Light-Duty Trucks	Heavy-Duty Trucks ^a	Buses
1990	0.0	0.1	0.5	0.0
1991	0.0	0.1	0.6	0.0
1992	0.0	0.1	0.5	0.0
1993	0.0	0.1	0.6	0.1
1994	0.0	0.1	0.6	0.1
1995	0.0	0.1	0.6	0.1
1996	0.0	0.1	0.6	0.1
1997	0.0	0.1	0.6	0.1
1998	0.0	0.1	0.6	0.1
1999	0.0	0.1	0.7	0.2
2000	0.1	0.1	0.8	0.3
2001	0.1	0.2	0.8	0.3
2002	0.2	0.2	0.9	0.3
2003	0.1	0.3	1.0	0.3
2004	0.2	0.2	0.9	0.4
2005	0.2	0.3	1.3	0.4
2006	0.2	0.5	2.4	0.5
2007	0.2	0.6	3.0	0.6
2008	0.2	0.5	2.8	0.6
2009	0.2	0.6	2.9	0.6
2010	0.2	0.5	2.6	0.7
2011	0.5	1.3	6.4	1.0
2012	0.9	1.5	6.5	1.0
2013	1.8	2.1	10.0	1.3
2014	2.7	2.0	9.8	1.4
2015	3.8	2.1	10.1	1.4
2016	5.0	3.1	14.0	1.7
2017	6.2	3.5	13.5	1.8
2018	9.1	3.8	13.2	1.8
2019	12.1	4.3	12.9	1.8
2020	12.1	4.9	11.8	1.7
2021	15.7	8.0	11.9	1.8
2022	21.4	13.2	12.3	2.0

^a Heavy-Duty Trucks includes medium-duty trucks and heavy-duty trucks.

Sources: Derived from Browning (2017), Browning (2018a), Browning (2022b), and EIA (2023c).

Notes: In 2017, estimates of alternative fuel vehicle mileage for the last ten years were revised to reflect updates made to EIA data on alternative fuel use and vehicle counts. These changes were incorporated into this year's *Inventory* and apply to the 2005 to 2022 time period.

LPG ICE	+	1.0	4.1	5.6	7.7	9.9	8.9	34.9	38.2	37.5	42.5	49.3
LPG Bi-fuel	114.8	99.5	39.7	19.5	17.8	16.3	14.3	22.2	18.1	12.7	9.3	5.7
LNG	7.4	6.4	5.2	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.4	5.4	5.2	4.5	4.4	4.4
Biodiesel (BD100)	+	+	1.8	2.0	2.1	1.7	1.6	3.0	2.8	2.3	2.2	2.2
Buses	39.5	265.0	723.4	1,378.4	1,390.8	1,723.6	1,750.6	1,798.9	1,837.2	1,747.7	1,794.7	2,037.4
Neat Methanol ICE	19.7	132.5	361.7	689.5	695.7	862.1	875.7	900.0	919.3	874.7	898.5	1,020.0
Neat Ethanol ICE	4.5	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
CNG ICE	+	0.1	+	5.5	5.7	5.1	3.7	1.9	0.9	0.4	+	+
LPG ICE	+	101.2	271.8	327.9	319.6	339.3	367.2	382.4	404.3	396.4	427.4	483.2
LNG	15.2	13.7	13.9	6.5	5.6	9.3	7.1	5.6	4.1	2.2	0.8	0.9
Biodiesel (BD100)	+	14.6	13.8	10.2	8.1	7.4	5.5	3.5	1.8	0.8	0.3	+
Electric	+	1.5	59.4	336.1	353.1	492.3	481.4	458.5	443.2	404.6	370.7	378.4
Fuel Cell Hydrogen	+	1.3	2.7	2.7	3.0	8.1	9.9	47.0	63.7	68.7	96.9	154.9
Total VMT	609.7	986.2	3,289.8	14,514.6	16,004.6	22,109.7	23,178.2	26,134.3	29,177.0	28,756.8	35,600.4	46,949.5

+ Does not exceed 0.05 million vehicle miles traveled.

Sources: Derived from Browning (2017), Browning (2018a), Browning (2022b), and EIA (2023a).

Notes: Throughout the rest of this *Inventory*, medium-duty trucks are grouped with heavy-duty trucks; they are reported separately here because these two categories may run on a slightly different range of fuel types. In 2017, estimates of alternative fuel vehicle mileage for the last ten years were revised to reflect updates made to EIA data on alternative fuel use and vehicle counts. These changes were incorporated into this year's *Inventory* and apply to the 2005 to 2022 time period. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table A-75: Age Distribution by Vehicle/Fuel Type for On-Road Vehicles^a 2022

Vehicle Age	LDGV	LDGT	HDGV	LDDV	LDDT	HDDV	MC	HDDB
0	5.8%	5.6%	5.2%	6.4%	9.2%	5.9%	5.8%	5.7%
1	5.9%	5.7%	5.0%	5.4%	9.1%	5.6%	5.9%	5.4%
2	5.9%	5.7%	5.0%	4.7%	8.8%	5.7%	5.8%	5.6%
3	5.9%	5.7%	5.1%	2.8%	7.8%	5.9%	5.5%	5.8%
4	5.9%	5.7%	4.8%	0.9%	6.4%	5.6%	5.2%	5.5%
5	5.1%	7.1%	5.1%	0.2%	6.6%	5.9%	3.8%	7.9%
6	5.6%	6.6%	4.7%	1.0%	5.5%	5.5%	3.6%	7.2%
7	5.9%	6.0%	4.6%	20.6%	4.4%	5.8%	3.4%	6.5%
8	6.0%	5.2%	4.1%	12.8%	3.0%	5.1%	3.2%	6.0%
9	5.5%	4.0%	2.5%	10.6%	2.2%	3.2%	2.7%	3.3%
10	4.9%	3.4%	3.2%	8.7%	2.6%	3.8%	2.8%	3.2%
11	3.6%	3.3%	2.4%	6.1%	2.3%	2.5%	1.9%	2.9%
12	3.7%	2.6%	1.2%	5.5%	0.9%	1.4%	1.5%	3.1%
13	3.1%	1.9%	1.8%	3.5%	0.9%	1.8%	3.3%	3.5%
14	3.7%	3.1%	3.3%	0.4%	2.7%	2.9%	4.1%	3.3%
15	3.6%	3.1%	2.5%	0.2%	2.4%	4.4%	5.0%	3.0%
16	3.0%	3.0%	3.5%	3.0%	3.6%	4.0%	4.9%	3.0%
17	2.6%	3.0%	2.8%	1.8%	2.9%	3.5%	4.4%	2.2%
18	2.1%	2.8%	2.4%	1.0%	3.1%	2.3%	3.6%	2.3%
19	1.9%	2.5%	2.0%	1.1%	2.5%	2.0%	3.8%	2.0%
20	1.5%	2.3%	1.9%	1.0%	2.1%	1.7%	3.1%	2.0%
21	1.2%	1.9%	2.2%	0.6%	2.0%	2.2%	2.6%	2.2%
22	1.1%	1.7%	2.3%	0.5%	1.4%	2.5%	2.0%	2.1%
23	0.9%	1.5%	3.5%	0.2%	1.5%	1.8%	1.5%	1.2%
24	0.7%	1.2%	1.7%	0.2%	0.4%	1.1%	1.1%	1.0%
25	0.6%	1.0%	1.9%	0.1%	1.2%	1.0%	0.9%	0.8%
26	0.4%	0.7%	1.3%	0.1%	0.8%	0.9%	0.8%	0.7%
27	0.4%	0.7%	1.7%	0.1%	0.7%	1.0%	0.7%	0.6%
28	0.3%	0.6%	1.0%	0.0%	0.5%	0.7%	0.6%	0.4%
29	0.2%	0.4%	0.8%	0.0%	0.4%	0.6%	0.5%	0.4%
30	3.0%	2.3%	10.8%	0.5%	2.3%	3.7%	5.9%	1.3%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

^a The following abbreviations correspond to vehicle types: LDGV (light-duty gasoline vehicles), LDGT (light-duty gasoline trucks), HDGV (heavy-duty gasoline vehicles), LDDV (light-duty diesel vehicles), LDDT (light-duty diesel trucks), HDDV (heavy-duty diesel vehicles), MC (motorcycles) and HDDB (heavy-duty diesel buses).

Note: This year's *Inventory* includes updated vehicle population data based on the MOVES3 Model. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Source: EPA (2022).

Table A-76: Annual Average Vehicle Mileage Accumulation per Vehicles^a (miles)

Vehicle Age	LDGV	LDGT	HDGV	LDDV	LDDT	HDDV	MC ^b	HDDB
0	14,422	16,301	20,030	14,422	16,301	44,970	9,418	25,012
1	14,148	15,994	19,943	14,148	15,994	44,437	5,029	24,207
2	13,852	15,649	19,887	13,852	15,649	45,208	3,805	23,427
3	13,536	15,271	19,815	13,536	15,271	46,197	3,146	22,651
4	13,203	14,863	18,652	13,203	14,863	43,452	2,722	21,931
5	12,853	14,429	19,945	12,853	14,430	42,486	2,420	21,092
6	12,490	13,975	18,600	12,490	13,975	40,717	2,194	20,746
7	12,116	13,502	17,232	12,117	13,502	41,902	2,015	19,519
8	11,733	13,016	15,972	11,733	13,016	38,080	1,865	18,964
9	11,343	12,522	13,972	11,343	12,522	38,532	1,742	18,808

Vehicle Age	LDGV	LDGT	HDGV	LDDV	LDDT	HDDV	MC ^b	Hddb
10	10,949	12,022	13,505	10,949	12,022	31,703	1,639	17,971
11	10,553	11,521	11,628	10,553	11,521	24,879	1,545	16,397
12	10,157	11,024	12,039	10,157	11,024	27,263	1,469	17,485
13	9,762	10,535	9,870	9,762	10,535	23,971	1,394	16,165
14	9,373	10,058	8,269	9,373	10,058	12,791	1,328	15,143
15	8,990	9,595	6,777	8,990	9,595	16,632	1,271	15,296
16	8,616	9,153	5,652	8,616	9,153	11,702	1,224	15,385
17	8,253	8,734	5,293	8,253	8,734	11,249	1,177	13,586
18	7,904	8,344	4,938	7,904	8,344	9,323	1,130	12,912
19	7,569	7,987	4,770	7,569	7,987	8,769	1,092	14,295
20	7,253	7,666	4,426	7,253	7,666	7,167	1,055	12,963
21	6,958	7,386	4,045	6,958	7,386	7,471	1,027	12,621
22	6,685	7,150	3,790	6,685	7,150	7,890	998	13,131
23	6,435	6,964	3,456	6,435	6,964	7,548	942	13,189
24	6,213	6,830	3,133	6,213	6,830	7,399	885	12,211
25	6,020	6,752	3,119	6,020	6,752	5,535	829	11,830
26	5,858	6,737	2,739	5,858	6,737	5,418	763	11,401
27	5,729	6,737	2,479	5,729	6,737	4,185	706	10,762
28	5,637	6,737	2,490	5,637	6,737	3,701	669	11,835
29	5,582	6,737	1,991	5,582	6,737	2,990	622	10,551
30	5,582	6,737	847	5,582	6,737	1,235	574	10,644

^a The following abbreviations correspond to vehicle types: LDGV (light-duty gasoline vehicles), LDGT (light-duty gasoline trucks), HDGV (heavy-duty gasoline vehicles), LDDV (light-duty diesel vehicles), LDDT (light-duty diesel trucks), HDDV (heavy-duty diesel vehicles), MC (motorcycles) and Hddb (heavy-duty diesel buses).

^b Because of a lack of data, all motorcycles over 12 years old are considered to have the same emissions and travel characteristics, and therefore are presented in aggregate.

Source: EPA (2022).

Table A-77: VMT Distribution by Vehicle Age and Vehicle/Fuel Type,^a 2022

Vehicle Age	LDGV	LDGT	HDGV	LDDV	LDDT	HDDV	MC	Hddb
0	7.48%	7.46%	9.11%	7.98%	11.82%	9.04%	23.25%	21.43%
1	7.44%	7.47%	8.74%	6.68%	11.48%	8.54%	12.65%	10.93%
2	7.29%	7.28%	8.77%	5.68%	10.90%	8.85%	9.43%	8.49%
3	7.12%	7.17%	8.87%	3.24%	9.34%	9.34%	7.36%	7.31%
4	6.96%	6.89%	7.90%	1.02%	7.50%	8.30%	6.05%	5.98%
5	5.85%	8.35%	9.00%	0.21%	7.55%	8.61%	3.97%	7.62%
6	6.32%	7.60%	7.74%	1.04%	6.11%	7.75%	3.38%	6.29%
7	6.44%	6.66%	6.93%	21.70%	4.66%	8.32%	2.93%	5.26%
8	6.32%	5.52%	5.76%	13.07%	3.03%	6.68%	2.54%	4.50%
9	5.60%	4.14%	3.12%	10.46%	2.14%	4.25%	2.01%	2.32%
10	4.76%	3.34%	3.83%	8.27%	2.44%	4.16%	1.97%	2.10%
11	3.43%	3.13%	2.42%	5.57%	2.05%	2.15%	1.28%	1.82%
12	3.33%	2.32%	1.32%	4.85%	0.82%	1.32%	0.94%	1.82%
13	2.75%	1.62%	1.54%	2.94%	0.75%	1.44%	1.97%	1.95%
14	3.10%	2.55%	2.39%	0.29%	2.11%	1.25%	2.31%	1.76%
15	2.94%	2.45%	1.47%	0.19%	1.79%	2.50%	2.73%	1.54%
16	2.34%	2.23%	1.72%	2.23%	2.58%	1.63%	2.55%	1.46%
17	1.96%	2.12%	1.29%	1.31%	1.97%	1.33%	2.21%	1.03%
18	1.51%	1.94%	1.03%	0.69%	2.01%	0.74%	1.72%	1.02%
19	1.27%	1.61%	0.85%	0.72%	1.57%	0.61%	1.79%	0.87%
20	1.00%	1.42%	0.76%	0.63%	1.25%	0.42%	1.39%	0.83%
21	0.78%	1.15%	0.78%	0.36%	1.18%	0.55%	1.12%	0.90%
22	0.68%	1.02%	0.77%	0.29%	0.77%	0.67%	0.87%	0.84%
23	0.50%	0.84%	1.06%	0.13%	0.84%	0.45%	0.62%	0.45%

Vehicle Age	LDGV	LDGT	HDGV	LDDV	LDDT	HDDV	MC	HDDB
24	0.38%	0.65%	0.46%	0.11%	0.21%	0.28%	0.43%	0.35%
25	0.30%	0.55%	0.52%	0.04%	0.62%	0.20%	0.32%	0.27%
26	0.22%	0.39%	0.31%	0.04%	0.41%	0.17%	0.27%	0.20%
27	0.20%	0.37%	0.38%	0.03%	0.36%	0.15%	0.20%	0.17%
28	0.14%	0.31%	0.22%	0.00%	0.26%	0.09%	0.16%	0.10%
29	0.11%	0.21%	0.15%	0.01%	0.22%	0.06%	0.13%	0.09%
30	1.50%	1.25%	0.80%	0.24%	1.24%	0.16%	1.45%	0.30%
Total	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%

^a The following abbreviations correspond to vehicle types: LDGV (light-duty gasoline vehicles), LDGT (light-duty gasoline trucks), HDGV (heavy-duty gasoline vehicles), LDDV (light-duty diesel vehicles), LDDT (light-duty diesel trucks), HDDV (heavy-duty diesel vehicles), MC (motorcycles) and HDDB (heavy-duty diesel buses).

Notes: Estimated by weighting data in Table A-76. This year's *Inventory* includes updated vehicle population data based on the MOVES3 model that affects this distribution. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

^b Commercial aviation, as modeled in FAA's AEDT, consists of passenger aircraft, cargo, and other chartered flights.

^c Includes equipment, such as cranes, dumpers, and excavators, as well as fuel consumption from trucks that are used off-road in construction.

^d Includes equipment, such as tractors and combines, as well as fuel consumption from trucks that are used off-road in agriculture.

^e "Other" includes snowmobiles and other recreational equipment, logging equipment, lawn and garden equipment, railroad equipment, airport equipment, commercial equipment, and industrial equipment, as well as fuel consumption from trucks that are used off-road for commercial/industrial purposes.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table A-79: Emissions Control Technology Assignments for Gasoline Passenger Cars (Percent of VMT)

Model Years	Non-catalyst	Oxidation	EPA Tier 0	EPA Tier 1	CARB LEV	CARB LEV 2	EPA Tier 2	CARB LEV 3	EPA Tier 3
1973-1974	100%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1975	20%	80%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1976-1977	15%	85%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1978-1979	10%	90%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1980	5%	88%	7%	-	-	-	-	-	-
1981	-	15%	85%	-	-	-	-	-	-
1982	-	14%	86%	-	-	-	-	-	-
1983	-	12%	88%	-	-	-	-	-	-
1984-1993	-	-	100%	-	-	-	-	-	-
1994	-	-	80%	20%	-	-	-	-	-
1995	-	-	60%	40%	-	-	-	-	-
1996	-	-	40%	54%	6%	-	-	-	-
1997	-	-	20%	68%	12%	-	-	-	-
1998	-	-	<1%	82%	18%	-	-	-	-
1999	-	-	<1%	67%	33%	-	-	-	-
2000	-	-	-	44%	56%	-	-	-	-
2001	-	-	-	3%	97%	-	-	-	-
2002	-	-	-	1%	99%	-	-	-	-
2003	-	-	-	<1%	85%	2%	12%	-	-
2004	-	-	-	<1%	24%	16%	60%	-	-
2005	-	-	-	-	13%	27%	60%	-	-
2006	-	-	-	-	18%	35%	47%	-	-
2007	-	-	-	-	4%	43%	53%	-	-
2008	-	-	-	-	2%	42%	56%	-	-
2009	-	-	-	-	<1%	43%	57%	-	-
2010	-	-	-	-	-	44%	56%	-	-
2011	-	-	-	-	-	42%	58%	-	-
2012	-	-	-	-	-	41%	59%	-	-
2013	-	-	-	-	-	40%	60%	-	-
2014	-	-	-	-	-	37%	62%	1%	-
2015	-	-	-	-	-	33%	56%	11%	<1%
2016	-	-	-	-	-	25%	50%	18%	6%
2017	-	-	-	-	-	14%	0%	29%	56%
2018	-	-	-	-	-	7%	0%	42%	52%
2019	-	-	-	-	-	3%	0%	44%	53%
2020	-	-	-	-	-	0%	0%	50%	50%
2021	-	-	-	-	-	2%	0%	48%	50%
2022	-	-	-	-	-	1%	0%	49%	50%

- (Not Applicable)

Note: Detailed descriptions of emissions control technologies are provided in the following section of this Annex. In 2016, historical confidential vehicle sales data was re-evaluated to determine the engine technology assignments. First, several light-duty trucks were re-characterized as heavy-duty vehicles based upon gross vehicle weight rating (GVWR) and confidential sales data. Second, which emission standards each vehicle type was assumed to have met were re-examined using confidential sales data. Also, in previous *Inventories*, non-plug-in hybrid electric vehicles (HEVs) were considered alternative fueled vehicles and therefore were not included in the engine technology breakouts. For this *Inventory*, HEVs are now classified as gasoline vehicles across the entire time series.

Sources: EPA (1998), EPA (2023a), and EPA (2023b).

Table A-80: Emissions Control Technology Assignments for Gasoline Light-Duty Trucks (Percent of VMT)^a

Model Years	Non-catalyst	Oxidation	EPA Tier 0	EPA Tier 1	CARB LEV ^b	CARB LEV 2	EPA Tier 2	CARB LEV 3	EPA Tier 3
1973-1974	100%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1975	30%	70%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1976	20%	80%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1977-1978	25%	75%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1979-1980	20%	80%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1981	-	95%	5%	-	-	-	-	-	-
1982	-	90%	10%	-	-	-	-	-	-
1983	-	80%	20%	-	-	-	-	-	-
1984	-	70%	30%	-	-	-	-	-	-
1985	-	60%	40%	-	-	-	-	-	-
1986	-	50%	50%	-	-	-	-	-	-
1987-1993	-	5%	95%	-	-	-	-	-	-
1994	-	-	60%	40%	-	-	-	-	-
1995	-	-	20%	80%	-	-	-	-	-
1996	-	-	-	100%	-	-	-	-	-
1997	-	-	-	100%	-	-	-	-	-
1998	-	-	-	87%	13%	-	-	-	-
1999	-	-	-	61%	39%	-	-	-	-
2000	-	-	-	63%	37%	-	-	-	-
2001	-	-	-	24%	76%	-	-	-	-
2002	-	-	-	31%	69%	-	-	-	-
2003	-	-	-	25%	69%	-	6%	-	-
2004	-	-	-	1%	26%	8%	65%	-	-
2005	-	-	-	-	17%	17%	66%	-	-
2006	-	-	-	-	24%	22%	54%	-	-
2007	-	-	-	-	14%	25%	61%	-	-
2008	-	-	-	-	<1%	34%	66%	-	-
2009	-	-	-	-	-	34%	66%	-	-
2010	-	-	-	-	-	30%	70%	-	-
2011	-	-	-	-	-	27%	73%	-	-
2012	-	-	-	-	-	24%	76%	-	-
2013	-	-	-	-	-	31%	69%	-	-
2014	-	-	-	-	-	26%	73%	1%	-
2015	-	-	-	-	-	22%	72%	6%	-
2016	-	-	-	-	-	20%	62%	16%	2%
2017	-	-	-	-	-	9%	14%	28%	48%
2018	-	-	-	-	-	7%	-	38%	55%
2019	-	-	-	-	-	3%	0%	44%	53%
2020	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50%	50%
2021	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50%	50%
2022	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50%	50%

- (Not Applicable)

^a Detailed descriptions of emissions control technologies are provided in the following section of this Annex.

^b The proportion of LEVs as a whole has decreased since 2001, as carmakers have been able to achieve greater emission reductions with certain types of LEVs, such as ULEVs. Because ULEVs emit about half the emissions of LEVs, a carmaker can reduce the total number of LEVs they need to build to meet a specified emission average for all of their vehicles in a given model year.

Notes: In 2016, historical confidential vehicle sales data was re-evaluated to determine the engine technology assignments. First several light-duty trucks were re-characterized as heavy-duty vehicles based upon gross vehicle weight rating (GVWR) and confidential sales data. Second, which emission standards each vehicle type was assumed to have met were re-examined using confidential sales data. Also, in previous *Inventories*, non-plug-in hybrid electric vehicles (HEVs) were considered alternative fueled

vehicles and therefore were not included in the engine technology breakouts. For this *Inventory*, HEVs are now classified as gasoline vehicles across the entire time series.

Sources: EPA (1998), EPA (2023a), and EPA (2023b).

Table A-81: Emissions Control Technology Assignments for Gasoline Heavy-Duty Vehicles (Percent of VMT)^a

Model Years	Uncontrolled	Non-catalyst Oxidation	EPA Tier 0	EPA Tier 1	CARB LEV ^b	CARB LEV 2	EPA Tier 2	CARB LEV 3	EPA Tier 3
≤1980	100%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1981-1984	95%	-	5%	-	-	-	-	-	-
1985-1986	-	95%	5%	-	-	-	-	-	-
1987	-	70%	15%	15%	-	-	-	-	-
1988-1989	-	60%	25%	15%	-	-	-	-	-
1990-1995	-	45%	30%	25%	-	-	-	-	-
1996	-	-	25%	10%	65%	-	-	-	-
1997	-	-	10%	5%	85%	-	-	-	-
1998	-	-	-	-	100%	-	-	-	-
1999	-	-	-	-	98%	2%	-	-	-
2000	-	-	-	-	93%	7%	-	-	-
2001	-	-	-	-	78%	22%	-	-	-
2002	-	-	-	-	94%	6%	-	-	-
2003	-	-	-	-	85%	14%	-	1%	-
2004	-	-	-	-	-	33%	-	67%	-
2005	-	-	-	-	-	15%	-	85%	-
2006	-	-	-	-	-	50%	-	50%	-
2007	-	-	-	-	-	-	27%	73%	-
2008	-	-	-	-	-	-	46%	54%	-
2009	-	-	-	-	-	-	45%	55%	-
2010	-	-	-	-	-	-	24%	76%	-
2011	-	-	-	-	-	-	7%	93%	-
2012	-	-	-	-	-	-	17%	83%	-
2013	-	-	-	-	-	-	17%	83%	-
2014	-	-	-	-	-	-	19%	81%	-
2015	-	-	-	-	-	-	31%	64%	5%
2016	-	-	-	-	-	-	24%	10%	21%
2017	-	-	-	-	-	-	8%	8%	39%
2018	-	-	-	-	-	-	13%	-	35%
2019	-	-	-	-	-	-	10%	-	40%
2020	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50%
2021	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50%
2022	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50%

- (Not Applicable)

^a Detailed descriptions of emissions control technologies are provided in the following section of this Annex.

^b The proportion of LEVs as a whole has decreased since 2000, as carmakers have been able to achieve greater emission reductions with certain types of LEVs, such as ULEVs. Because ULEVs emit about half the emissions of LEVs, a manufacturer can reduce the total number of LEVs they need to build to meet a specified emission average for all of their vehicles in a given model year.

Notes: In 2016, historical confidential vehicle sales data was re-evaluated to determine the engine technology assignments. First several light-duty trucks were re-characterized as heavy-duty vehicles based upon gross vehicle weight rating (GVWR) and confidential sales data. Second, which emission standards each vehicle type was assumed to have met were re-examined using confidential sales data. Also, in previous *Inventories*, non-plug-in hybrid electric vehicles (HEVs) were considered alternative fueled vehicles and therefore were not included in the engine technology breakouts. For this *Inventory*, HEVs are now classified as gasoline vehicles across the entire time series.

Sources: EPA (1998), EPA (2023a), and EPA (2023b).

Table A-82: Emissions Control Technology Assignments for Diesel On-Road Vehicles and Motorcycles

Vehicle Type/Control Technology	Model Years
Diesel Passenger Cars and Light-Duty Trucks	
Uncontrolled	1960–1982
Moderate Control	1983–1995
Advanced Control	1996–2006
Aftertreatment	2007–2022
Diesel Medium- and Heavy-Duty Trucks and Buses	
Uncontrolled	1960–1989
Moderate Control	1990–2003
Advanced Control	2004–2006
Aftertreatment	2007–2022
Motorcycles	
Uncontrolled	1960–1995
Non-Catalyst Controls	1996–2005
Advanced	2006–2022

Note: Detailed descriptions of emissions control technologies are provided in the following section of this Annex.

Source: EPA (1998) and Browning (2005).

Table A-83: Emission Factors for CH₄ and N₂O for On-Road Vehicles

Vehicle Type/Control Technology	N ₂ O (g/mi)	CH ₄ (g/mi)
Gasoline Passenger Cars		
EPA Tier 3	0.0015	0.0055
ARB LEV III	0.0012	0.0045
EPA Tier 2	0.0048	0.0072
ARB LEV II	0.0043	0.0070
ARB LEV	0.0205	0.0100
EPA Tier 1 ^a	0.0429	0.0271
EPA Tier 0 ^a	0.0647	0.0704
Oxidation Catalyst	0.0504	0.1355
Non-Catalyst Control	0.0197	0.1696
Uncontrolled	0.0197	0.1780
Gasoline Light-Duty Trucks		
EPA Tier 3	0.0012	0.0092
ARB LEV III	0.0012	0.0065
EPA Tier 2	0.0025	0.0100
ARB LEV II	0.0057	0.0084
ARB LEV	0.0223	0.0148
EPA Tier 1 ^a	0.0871	0.0452
EPA Tier 0 ^a	0.1056	0.0776
Oxidation Catalyst	0.0639	0.1516
Non-Catalyst Control	0.0218	0.1908
Uncontrolled	0.0220	0.2024
Gasoline Heavy-Duty Vehicles		
EPA Tier 3	0.0063	0.0252
ARB LEV III	0.0136	0.0411
EPA Tier 2	0.0015	0.0297
ARB LEV II	0.0049	0.0391
ARB LEV	0.0466	0.0300
EPA Tier 1 ^a	0.1750	0.0655

EPA Tier 0 ^a	0.2135	0.2630
Oxidation Catalyst	0.1317	0.2356
Non-Catalyst Control	0.0473	0.4181
Uncontrolled	0.0497	0.4604
Diesel Passenger Cars		
Aftertreatment	0.0192	0.0302
Advanced	0.0010	0.0005
Moderate	0.0010	0.0005
Uncontrolled	0.0012	0.0006
Diesel Light-Duty Trucks		
Aftertreatment	0.0214	0.0290
Advanced	0.0014	0.0009
Moderate	0.0014	0.0009
Uncontrolled	0.0017	0.0011
Diesel Medium- and Heavy-Duty Trucks and Buses		
Aftertreatment	0.0431	0.0095
Advanced	0.0048	0.0051
Moderate	0.0048	0.0051
Uncontrolled	0.0048	0.0051
Motorcycles		
Advanced	0.0179	0.0661
Non-Catalyst Control	0.0069	0.0672
Uncontrolled	0.0087	0.0899

^a The categories “EPA Tier 0” and “EPA Tier 1” were substituted for the early three-way catalyst and advanced three-way catalyst categories, respectively, as defined in the *2006 IPCC Guidelines*. Detailed descriptions of emissions control technologies are provided at the end of this Annex. Source: ICF (2006 and 2017), Browning (2022a).

	1990	2000	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Diesel	0.297	0.297	0.297	0.297	0.297	0.297	0.297	0.297	0.297	0.297	0.297	0.297	0.297	0.304
LPG	0.005	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.004
Recreational Equipment														
Gasoline														
2 Stroke	0.034	0.034	0.035	0.036	0.036	0.037	0.037	0.037	0.038	0.038	0.039	0.039	0.039	0.039
4 Stroke	0.487	0.503	0.535	0.535	0.536	0.536	0.536	0.536	0.536	0.536	0.537	0.537	0.531	0.535
Diesel	0.207	0.207	0.207	0.207	0.207	0.207	0.207	0.207	0.207	0.207	0.207	0.207	0.207	0.208
LPG	0.255	0.255	0.272	0.275	0.277	0.279	0.281	0.284	0.286	0.288	0.290	0.293	0.295	0.297

- Not applicable

^a Includes equipment, such as tractors and combines, as well as fuel consumption from trucks that are used off-road in agriculture.

^b Includes equipment, such as cranes, dumpers, and excavators, as well as fuel consumption from trucks that are used off-road in construction.

Source: IPCC (2006) and Browning, L (2018b), EPA (2022).

Table A-87: Emission Factors for CH₄ Emissions from Non-Road Mobile Combustion (g/kg fuel)

	1990	2000	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Ships and Boats														
Residual Fuel Oil	0.309	0.309	0.309	0.309	0.309	0.309	0.309	0.309	0.309	0.309	0.309	0.309	0.309	0.309
Gasoline														
2 Stroke	1.255	1.270	1.489	1.514	1.536	1.557	1.578	1.597	1.615	1.629	1.642	1.652	1.661	1.672
4 Stroke	0.717	0.725	0.763	0.768	0.773	0.777	0.783	0.788	0.793	0.797	0.801	0.805	0.808	0.813
Distillate Fuel Oil	2.008	2.008	2.008	2.008	2.008	2.008	2.008	2.008	2.008	2.008	2.008	2.008	2.008	2.039
Rail														
Diesel	0.250	0.250	0.250	0.250	0.250	0.250	0.250	0.250	0.250	0.250	0.250	0.250	0.250	0.250
Aircraft														
Jet Fuel ^a	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Aviation Gasoline	2.640	2.640	2.640	2.640	2.640	2.640	2.640	2.640	2.640	2.640	2.640	2.640	2.640	2.640
Agricultural Equipment^b														
Gasoline-Equipment														
2 Stroke	1.500	1.720	2.480	2.480	2.480	2.480	2.480	2.480	2.480	2.480	2.480	2.480	2.480	2.471
4 Stroke	0.570	0.586	0.660	0.666	0.670	0.674	0.677	0.679	0.682	0.686	0.689	0.692	0.695	0.692
Gasoline-Off-road Trucks	0.570	0.586	0.660	0.666	0.670	0.674	0.677	0.679	0.682	0.686	0.689	0.692	0.695	0.692
Diesel-Equipment	0.397	0.397	0.397	0.397	0.397	0.397	0.397	0.397	0.397	0.397	0.397	0.397	0.397	0.396
Diesel-Off-Road Trucks	0.286	0.286	0.286	0.286	0.286	0.286	0.286	0.286	0.286	0.286	0.286	0.286	0.286	0.287
CNG	1.391	1.391	1.698	1.710	1.719	1.726	1.731	1.734	1.736	1.736	1.736	1.736	1.736	1.730
LPG	0.135	0.135	0.153	0.154	0.155	0.156	0.157	0.157	0.158	0.158	0.159	0.160	0.160	0.160
Construction/Mining Equipment^c														

	1990	2000	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
<i>4 Stroke</i>	0.897	0.990	1.151	1.153	1.155	1.157	1.158	1.158	1.159	1.160	1.160	1.160	1.160	1.190
Diesel	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.130
LPG	0.784	0.787	0.893	0.905	0.919	0.927	0.936	0.943	0.956	0.962	0.966	0.970	0.973	1.000
Recreational Equipment														
Gasoline														
<i>2 Stroke</i>	5.170	5.252	5.616	5.700	5.781	5.862	5.944	6.024	6.100	6.176	6.244	6.310	3.510	3.534
<i>4 Stroke</i>	0.935	0.965	1.028	1.028	1.029	1.030	1.030	1.030	1.031	1.031	1.031	1.032	0.975	0.982
Diesel	0.228	0.228	0.228	0.228	0.228	0.228	0.228	0.228	0.228	0.228	0.228	0.228	0.228	0.230
LPG	0.182	0.182	0.195	0.196	0.198	0.200	0.201	0.203	0.204	0.206	0.208	0.209	0.211	0.213

^a Emissions of CH₄ from jet fuels have been zeroed out across the time series. Recent research indicates that modern aircraft jet engines are typically net consumers of methane (Santoni et al., 2011). Methane is emitted at low power and idle operation, but at higher power modes aircraft engines consumer methane. Over the range of engine operating modes, aircraft engines are net consumers of methane on average. Based on this data, CH₄ emissions factors for jet aircraft were changed to zero to reflect the latest emissions testing data.

^b Includes equipment, such as tractors and combines, as well as fuel consumption from trucks that are used off-road in agriculture.

^c Includes equipment, such as cranes, dumpers, and excavators, as well as fuel consumption from trucks that are used off-road in construction. Sources: IPCC (2006) and Browning, L (2018b), EPA (2022).

Definitions of Emission Control Technologies and Standards

The N₂O and CH₄ emission factors used depend on the emission standards in place and the corresponding level of control technology for each vehicle type. Table A-79 through Table A-82 show the years in which these technologies or standards were in place and the penetration level for each vehicle type. These categories are defined below and were compiled from EPA (1998, 1999) and IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997).

Uncontrolled

Vehicles manufactured prior to the implementation of pollution control technologies are designated as uncontrolled. Gasoline passenger cars and light-duty trucks (pre-1973), gasoline heavy-duty vehicles (pre-1984), diesel vehicles (pre-1983), and motorcycles (pre-1996) are assumed to have no control technologies in place.

Gasoline Emission Controls

Below are the control technologies and emissions standards applicable to gasoline vehicles.

Non-catalyst

These emission controls were common in gasoline passenger cars and light-duty gasoline trucks during model years (1973-1974) but phased out thereafter, in heavy-duty gasoline vehicles beginning in the mid-1980s, and in motorcycles from 1996 to 2005. This technology reduces hydrocarbon (HC) and carbon monoxide (CO) emissions through adjustments to ignition timing and air-fuel ratio, air injection into the exhaust manifold, and exhaust gas recirculation (EGR) valves, which also helps meet vehicle NO_x standards.

Oxidation Catalyst

This control technology designation represents the introduction of the catalytic converter, which was the most common technology in gasoline passenger cars and light-duty gasoline trucks made from 1975 to 1980 (cars) and 1975 to 1985 (trucks). This technology was also used in some heavy-duty gasoline vehicles between 1982 and 1997. The two-way catalytic converter oxidizes HC and CO, significantly reducing emissions over 80 percent beyond non-catalyst-system capacity. One reason unleaded gasoline was introduced in 1975 was due to the fact that oxidation catalysts cannot function properly with leaded gasoline.

Advanced Control

Motorcycles built after 2005 are assumed to have advanced emission control systems to better capture emissions from motorcycles. This can include fuel injection, closed loop control, and three-way catalysts.

EPA Tier 0

This emission standard from the Clean Air Act was met through the implementation of early "three-way" catalysts, a technology used in gasoline passenger cars and light-duty gasoline trucks beginning in the early 1980s which remained common until 1994. This more sophisticated emission control system improves the efficiency of the catalyst by converting CO and HC to CO₂ and H₂O, reducing NO_x to nitrogen and oxygen, and using an on-board diagnostic computer and oxygen sensor. In addition, this type of catalyst includes a fuel metering system (carburetor or fuel injection) with electronic "trim" (also known as a "closed-loop system"). New cars with three-way catalysts met the Clean Air Act's amended standards (enacted in 1977) of reducing HC to 0.41 g/mile by 1980, CO to 3.4 g/mile by 1981 and NO_x to 1.0 g/mile by 1981.

EPA Tier 1

This emission standard created through the 1990 amendments to the Clean Air Act limited passenger car NO_x emissions to 0.4 g/mi, and HC emissions to 0.25 g/mi. These bounds amounted to a 60 and 40 percent reduction respectively from the EPA Tier 0 standard set in 1981. For light-duty trucks, this standard set emissions at 0.4 to 1.1 g/mi for NO_x, and 0.25 to 0.39 g/mi for HCs, depending on the weight of the truck. Emission reductions were met through the use of more advanced emission control systems applied to light-duty gasoline vehicles beginning in 1994. These advanced emission control systems included advanced three-way catalysts, electronically controlled fuel injection and ignition timing, EGR, and air injection.

EPA Tier 2

This emission standard was specified in the 1990 amendments to the Clean Air Act, limiting passenger car NO_x emissions to 0.07 g/mi on average and aligning emissions standards for passenger cars and light-duty trucks. Manufacturers can meet this average emission level by producing vehicles in eleven emission “Bins,” the three highest of which expired in 2006. These emission standards represent a 77 to 95 percent reduction in emissions from the EPA Tier 1 standard set in 1994. Emission reductions were met via more advanced emission control systems and lower sulfur fuels and applied to vehicles beginning in 2004. These advanced emission control systems include improved combustion, advanced three-way catalysts, electronically controlled fuel injection and ignition timing, EGR, and air injection.

EPA Tier 3

These standards begin in 2017 and will fully phase-in by 2025, although some Tier 3-compliant vehicles were produced prior to 2017. This emission standard reduces both tailpipe and evaporative emissions from passenger cars, light-duty trucks, medium-duty passenger vehicles, and some heavy-duty vehicles. It is combined with a gasoline sulfur standard that will enable more stringent vehicle emissions standards and will make emissions control systems more effective.

CARB Low Emission Vehicles (LEV)

This emission standard requires a much higher emission control level than the Tier 1 standard. Applied to light-duty gasoline passenger cars and trucks beginning in small numbers in the mid-1990s, LEV includes multi-port fuel injection with adaptive learning, an advanced computer diagnostics systems and advanced and close coupled catalysts with secondary air injection. LEVs as defined here include transitional low-emission vehicles (TLEVs), low emission vehicles, ultra-low emission vehicles (ULEVs). In this analysis, all categories of LEVs are treated the same given there are limited CH₄ or N₂O emission factor data for LEVs to distinguish among the different types of vehicles. Zero emission vehicles (ZEVs) are incorporated into the alternative fuel and advanced technology vehicle assessments.

CARB LEVII

This emission standard builds upon ARB’s LEV emission standards. They represent a significant strengthening of the emission standards and require light trucks under 8500 lbs. gross vehicle weight to meet passenger car standards. It also introduces a super ultra-low vehicle (SULEV) emission standard. The LEVII standards decreased emission requirements for LEV and ULEV vehicles as well as increasing the useful life of the vehicle to 150,000. These standards began with 2004 vehicles. In this analysis, all categories of LEVIIs are treated the same given there are limited CH₄ or N₂O emission factor data for LEVIIs to distinguish among the different types of vehicles. Zero emission vehicles (ZEVs) are incorporated into the alternative fuel and advanced technology vehicle assessments.

CARB LEVIII

These standards begin in 2015 and are fully phased in by 2025, although some LEVIII-compliant vehicles were produced prior to 2017. LEVIII set new vehicle emissions standards and lowered the sulfur content of gasoline, considering the vehicle and its fuel as an integrated system. These new tailpipe standards apply to all light-duty vehicles, medium duty, and some heavy-duty vehicles. Zero emission vehicles (ZEVs) are incorporated into the alternative fuel and advanced technology vehicle assessments.

Diesel Emission Controls

Below are the three levels of emissions control for diesel vehicles.

Moderate control

Improved injection timing technology and combustion system design for light- and heavy-duty diesel vehicles (in place in model years 1983 to 1995) are considered moderate control technologies. These controls were implemented to meet emission standards for diesel trucks and buses adopted by the EPA in 1985 to be met in 1991 and 1994.

Advanced control

EGR and modern electronic control of the fuel injection system are designated as advanced control technologies. These technologies provide diesel vehicles with the level of emission control necessary to comply with standards in place from 1996 through 2006.

Aftertreatment

Use of diesel particulate filters (DPFs), oxidation catalysts and NO_x absorbers or selective catalytic reduction (SCR) systems are designated as aftertreatment control. These technologies provide diesel vehicles with a level of emission control necessary to comply with standards in place from 2007 on.

Supplemental Information on Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Transportation and Other Mobile Sources

This section of this Annex includes supplemental information on the contribution of transportation and other mobile sources to U.S. greenhouse gas emissions. In the main body of the *Inventory* report, emission estimates are presented by greenhouse gas, with separate discussions of the methodologies used to estimate CO₂, N₂O, CH₄, and HFC emissions. Although the *Inventory* is not required to provide details beyond what is contained in the body of this report, the IPCC allows presentation of additional data and detail on emission sources. The purpose of this sub-annex, within the Annex that details the calculation methods and data used for non-CO₂ calculations, is to consolidate all transportation estimates presented throughout the report.

This section of this Annex reports total greenhouse gas emissions from transportation and other (non-transportation) mobile sources in CO₂ equivalents, with information on the contribution by greenhouse gas and by mode, vehicle type, and fuel type. Additional analyses were conducted to develop estimates of CO₂ from non-transportation mobile sources (e.g., agricultural equipment, construction/mining equipment, recreational vehicles), and to provide more detailed breakdowns of emissions by source.

Estimation of CO₂ from Non-Transportation Mobile Sources

The estimates of N₂O and CH₄ from fuel combustion presented in the Energy chapter of the *Inventory* include both transportation sources and other mobile sources. Other mobile sources include construction/mining equipment, agricultural equipment, vehicles used off-road, and other sources that have utility associated with their movement but do not have a primary purpose of transporting people or goods (e.g., snowmobiles, riding lawnmowers, etc.). Estimates of CO₂ from non-transportation mobile sources, based on EIA fuel consumption estimates, are included in the industrial and commercial sectors of the *Inventory*. In order to provide comparable information on transportation and mobile sources, Table A-88 provides estimates of CO₂ from these other mobile sources, developed from the Nonroad component of EPA's MOVES3 model and FHWA's Highway Statistics. These other mobile source estimates were developed using the same fuel consumption data utilized in developing the N₂O and CH₄ estimates (see Table A-78). Note that the method used to estimate fuel consumption volumes for CO₂ emissions from non-transportation mobile sources for the supplemental information presented in Table A-88, Table A-90, and Table A-91 differs from the method used to estimate fuel consumption volumes for CO₂ in the industrial and commercial sectors in this *Inventory*, which include CO₂ emissions from all non-transportation mobile sources (see Section 3.1 for a discussion of that methodology).

Estimation of HFC Emissions from Transportation Sources

In addition to CO₂, N₂O and CH₄ emissions, transportation sources also result in emissions of HFCs. HFCs are emitted to the atmosphere during equipment manufacture and operation (because of component failure, leaks, and purges), as well as at servicing and disposal events. There are three categories of transportation-related HFC emissions: Mobile air-conditioning represents the emissions from air conditioning units in passenger cars, light-duty trucks, and heavy-duty vehicles; Comfort Cooling represents the emissions from air conditioning units in passenger trains and buses; and Refrigerated Transport represents the emissions from units used to cool freight during transportation Table A-89 below presents these HFC emissions. Table A-90 presents all transportation and mobile source greenhouse gas emissions, including HFC emissions.

Table A-88: CO₂ Emissions from Non-Transportation Mobile Sources (MMT CO₂ Eq.)^a

Fuel Type/ Vehicle Type	1990	2000	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Agricultural Equipment ^a	43.4	39.9	46.8	48.0	45.8	45.9	41.1	40.2	39.8	39.8	39.7	39.1	39.8	39.3
Construction/Mining Equipment ^b	48.9	57.4	64.0	62.9	65.9	61.1	57.0	60.0	65.1	68.2	70.3	65.1	69.5	72.7
Other Sources ^c	69.6	76.3	85.8	85.9	87.0	88.8	87.4	88.3	89.9	92.3	94.1	88.0	93.4	100.2
Total	161.9	173.6	196.6	196.8	198.7	195.9	185.6	188.4	194.8	200.3	204.1	192.2	202.8	212.2

^a Includes equipment, such as tractors and combines, as well as fuel consumption from trucks that are used off-road in agriculture. The non-transportation mobile category is similar to the IPCC's "Off-road" category (1 A 3 e ii) described in Chapter 3: Mobile Combustion 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories, in Table 3.1.1.

^b Includes equipment, such as cranes, dumpers, and excavators, as well as fuel consumption from trucks that are used off-road in construction.

^c "Other" includes snowmobiles and other recreational equipment, logging equipment, lawn and garden equipment, railroad equipment, airport equipment, commercial equipment, and industrial equipment, as well as fuel consumption from trucks that are used off-road for commercial/industrial purposes.

Notes: The method used to estimate CO₂ emissions in this supplementary information table differs from the method used to estimate CO₂ in the industrial and commercial sectors in the *Inventory*, which include CO₂ emissions from all non-transportation mobile sources (see Section 3.1 for the methodology for estimating CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion in this *Inventory*). The current *Inventory* uses the Nonroad component of MOVES3 for years 1999 through 2022. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table A-89: HFC Emissions from Transportation Sources (MMT CO₂ Eq.)

Vehicle Type	1990	2000	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Mobile AC	+	50.2	53.2	47.9	42.4	39.4	36.8	33.6	30.2	28.2	26.2	24.2	22.4	20.4
Passenger Cars	+	25.5	21.7	18.7	15.7	14.4	13.3	12.0	10.4	9.4	8.4	7.6	7.0	6.6
Light-Duty Trucks	+	23.3	28.8	26.6	24.1	22.4	20.9	19.2	17.5	16.4	15.4	14.2	13.0	11.4
Heavy-Duty Vehicles	+	1.5	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4
Comfort Cooling for Trains and Buses	+	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
School and Tour Buses	+	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Transit Buses	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Rail	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Refrigerated Transport	+	0.8	3.4	3.9	4.4	4.9	5.4	5.9	6.4	6.9	7.4	7.9	8.4	8.8
Medium- and Heavy-Duty Trucks	+	0.4	1.8	2.0	2.3	2.5	2.6	2.8	3.0	3.2	3.4	3.6	3.8	3.9
Rail	+	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Ships and Boats	+	0.3	1.5	1.7	2.0	2.3	2.6	2.9	3.2	3.6	3.9	4.2	4.5	4.8
Total	+	51.1	57.0	52.3	47.3	44.7	42.6	39.9	37.0	35.5	34.0	32.5	31.2	29.6

+ Does not exceed 0.05 MMT CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Contribution of Transportation and Mobile Sources to Greenhouse Gas Emissions, by Mode/Vehicle Type/Fuel Type

Table A-90 presents estimates of greenhouse gas emissions from an expanded analysis including all transportation and additional mobile sources, as well as emissions from electricity generation by the consuming category, in CO₂ equivalents. In total, transportation and non-transportation mobile sources emitted 2,027.0 MMT CO₂ Eq. in 2022, an increase of 20 percent from 1990.⁵⁶ Transportation sources account for 1,807.7 MMT CO₂ Eq. while non-transportation mobile sources account for 219.3 MMT CO₂ Eq. These estimates include HFC emissions for mobile AC, comfort cooling for trains and buses, and refrigerated transport. These estimates were generated using the estimates of CO₂ emissions from transportation sources reported in Section 3.1 CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion, and CH₄ emissions and N₂O emissions reported in the Mobile Combustion section of the Energy chapter; information on HFCs from mobile air conditioners, comfort cooling for trains and buses, and refrigerated transportation from the Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances section of the IPPU chapter; and estimates of CO₂ emitted from non-transportation mobile sources reported in Table A-88 above.

Although all emissions reported here are based on estimates reported throughout this *Inventory*, some additional calculations were performed to provide a detailed breakdown of emissions by mode and vehicle category. In the case of N₂O and CH₄, additional calculations were performed to develop emission estimates by type of aircraft and type of heavy-duty vehicle (i.e., medium- and heavy-duty trucks or buses) to match the level of detail for CO₂ emissions. N₂O estimates for both jet fuel and aviation gasoline, and CH₄ estimates for aviation gasoline were developed for individual aircraft types by multiplying the emissions estimates for each fuel type (jet fuel and aviation gasoline) by the portion of fuel used by each aircraft type (from FAA 2024 and DLA 2022). Emissions of CH₄ from jet fuels are no longer considered to be emitted from aircraft gas turbine engines burning jet fuel A at higher power settings. This update applies to the entire time series.⁵⁷ Recent research indicates that modern aircraft jet engines are typically net consumers of methane (Santoni et al. 2011). Methane is emitted at low power and idle operation, but at higher power modes aircraft engines consume methane. Over the range of engine operating modes, aircraft engines are net consumers of methane on average. Based on this data, CH₄ emission factors for jet aircraft were reported as zero to reflect the latest emissions testing data.

Similarly, N₂O and CH₄ estimates were developed for medium- and heavy-duty trucks by multiplying the emission estimates for heavy-duty vehicles for each fuel type (gasoline, diesel) from the Mobile Combustion section in the Energy chapter, by the portion of fuel used by each vehicle type (from DOE 1993 through 2022). Carbon dioxide emissions from non-transportation mobile sources are calculated using data from the Nonroad component of EPA's MOVES3 model (EPA 2022). Otherwise, the table and figure are drawn directly from emission estimates presented elsewhere in the *Inventory*, and are dependent on the methodologies presented in Annex 2.1 (for CO₂), Chapter 4, and Annex 3.9 (for HFCs), and earlier in this Annex (for CH₄ and N₂O).

Transportation sources include on-road vehicles, aircraft, boats and ships, rail, and pipelines (note: pipelines are a transportation source but are stationary, not mobile, emissions sources). In addition, transportation-related greenhouse gas emissions also include HFC released from mobile air-conditioners and refrigerated transport, and the release of CO₂ from lubricants (such as motor oil) used in transportation. Together, transportation sources were responsible for 1,807.7 MMT CO₂ Eq. in 2022.

On-road vehicles were responsible for about 73 percent of all transportation and non-transportation mobile greenhouse gas emissions in 2022. Although light-duty vehicles make up the largest component of on-road vehicle greenhouse gas emissions, medium- and heavy-duty trucks have been the primary sources of growth in on-road vehicle emissions. Greenhouse gas emissions from passenger cars decreased 43 percent between 1990 and 2022. Greenhouse gas emissions from light-duty trucks increased by 118 percent between 1990 and 2022. Overall, between 1990 and 2022, greenhouse gas emissions from passenger cars and light-duty trucks together increased by 10 percent. Greenhouse gas

⁵⁶ Recommended Best Practice for Quantifying Speciated Organic Gas Emissions from Aircraft Equipped with Turbofan, Turbojet and Turboprop Engines," EPA-420-R-09-901, May 27, 2009 (see <https://www.epa.gov/regulations-emissions-vehicles-and-engines/organic-gas-speciation-profile-aircraft>).

⁵⁷ VMT is allocated to vehicle classes using MOVES3 ratios of VMT in each vehicle class to total VMT.

emissions from medium- and heavy-duty trucks increased 76 percent between 1990 and 2022, reflecting the increased volume of total freight movement and an increasing share of freight transported by trucks.

Greenhouse gas emissions from aircraft decreased 11 percent between 1990 and 2022. Emissions from military aircraft decreased 65 percent between 1990 and 2022. Commercial aircraft emissions increased 27 percent between 1990 and 2007, dropped 2 percent from 2007 to 2019, dropped another 33 percent from 2019 to 2020, followed by an increase of 42 percent from 2020 to 2022. Overall, this represents a change of approximately 18 percent between 1990 and 2022.

Non-transportation mobile sources, such as construction/mining equipment, agricultural equipment, and industrial/commercial equipment, emitted approximately 219.3 MMT CO₂ Eq. in 2022. Together, these sources emitted more greenhouse gases than ships and boats, and rail combined. Emissions from non-transportation mobile sources increased, growing approximately 31 percent between 1990 and 2022. Methane and N₂O emissions from these sources are included in the “Mobile Combustion” section and CO₂ emissions are included in the relevant economic sectors.

Contribution of Transportation and Mobile Sources to Greenhouse Gas Emissions, by Gas

Table A-91 presents estimates of greenhouse gas emissions from transportation and other mobile sources broken down by greenhouse gas. As this table shows, CO₂ accounts for most transportation greenhouse gas emissions (approximately 98 percent in 2022). Emissions of CO₂ from transportation and mobile sources increased by 346 MMT CO₂ Eq. between 1990 and 2022. In contrast, the combined emissions of CH₄ and N₂O decreased by 26.3 MMT CO₂ Eq. over the same period, due largely to the introduction of emission control technologies designed to reduce criteria pollutant emissions.⁵⁸ HFC emissions from mobile air-conditioners and refrigerated transport increased from virtually no emissions in 1990 to 29.6 MMT CO₂ Eq. in 2022 as these chemicals were phased in as substitutes for ozone depleting substances. It should be noted, however, that the ozone depleting substances that HFCs replaced are also powerful greenhouse gases but are not included in national greenhouse gas inventories per UNFCCC reporting requirements.

Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Freight and Passenger Transportation

Table A-92 and Table A-93 present greenhouse gas estimates from transportation, broken down into the passenger and freight categories. Passenger modes include light-duty vehicles, buses, passenger rail, aircraft (general aviation and commercial aircraft), recreational boats, and mobile air conditioners, and are illustrated in Table A-92. Freight modes include medium- and heavy-duty trucks, freight rail, refrigerated transport, waterborne freight vessels, pipelines, and commercial aircraft and are illustrated in Table A-93. Commercial aircraft do carry some freight, in addition to passengers, and emissions have been split between passenger and freight transportation. The amount of commercial aircraft emissions allocated to the passenger and freight categories was calculated using BTS data on freight shipped by commercial aircraft, and the total number of passengers enplaned (DOT 1991 through 2023). Each passenger was considered to weigh an average of 150 pounds, with a luggage weight of 50 pounds. The total freight weight and total passenger weight carried were used to determine percent shares which were used to split the total commercial aircraft emission estimates. The remaining transportation and mobile emissions were from sources not considered to be either freight or passenger modes (e.g., construction/mining and agricultural equipment, lubricants).

The estimates in these tables are derived from the estimates presented in Table A-90. In addition, estimates of fuel consumption from DOE (1993 through 2022) were used to allocate rail emissions between passenger and freight categories.

In 2022, passenger transportation modes emitted 1,215.0 MMT CO₂ Eq., while freight transportation modes emitted 569.3 MMT CO₂ Eq. Between 1990 and 2022, the percentage growth of greenhouse gas emissions from freight sources was 61 percent. Emissions from passenger sources increased by 8 percent from 1990 to 2022. This difference in growth is due largely to the rapid increase in emissions associated with medium- and heavy-duty trucks.

⁵⁸ The decline in CFC emissions is not captured in the official transportation estimates.

Diesel	21.9	21.6	25.7	27.6	28.5	29.4	29.6	29.8	30.5	31.7	32.5	29.8	32.1	35.0	2%	60%
CNG	1.2	1.4	1.7	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.2	2.3	2.5	0%	116%
LPG	8.3	12.9	12.8	12.9	13.1	13.3	13.5	13.7	14.3	15.0	15.5	14.3	15.4	17.1	1%	106%
Transportation and Non-Transportation Mobile Total^l	1,691.4	2,086.3	2,005.1	1,951.2	1,956.8	1,988.3	1,985.8	2,023.7	2,047.8	2,083.6	2,090.4	1,828.2	2,020.1	2,027.0	100%	20%

+ Does not exceed 0.05 MMT CO₂ Eq.

NA (Not Applicable), as there were no HFC emissions allocated to the transport sector in 1990, and thus a growth rate cannot be calculated.

^a Not including emissions from international bunker fuels.

^b Gasoline and diesel highway vehicle fuel consumption estimates used to develop CO₂ estimates in this *Inventories* are based on data from FHWA Highway Statistics Table MF-21, MF-27 and ratios developed from MOVES3 to apportion FHWA fuel consumption data to vehicle type and fuel type. MOVES3 ratios of fuel use by vehicle class to total fuel use are used to allocate fuel consumption between each on-road vehicle class. For mobile CH₄ and N₂O emissions estimates, gasoline and diesel highway vehicle mileage estimates are based on data from FHWA Highway Statistics Table VM-1 (FHWA 1996 through 2023). Total VMT estimates were then allocated using EPA's MOVES3 model ratios of VMT per vehicle class to total VMT.

^c In 2017, estimates of alternative fuel vehicle mileage for the last ten years were revised to reflect updates made to EIA data on alternative fuel use and vehicle counts. These changes were incorporated into this year's *Inventories* and apply to the 2003 to 2017 time period. For 2017 and later, estimates were made using available data (Browning 2022b).

^d Fluctuations in emission estimates reflect data collection problems. Note that CH₄ and N₂O from U.S. Territories are included in this value, but not CO₂ emissions from U.S. Territories, which are estimated separately in the section on U.S. Territories.

^e Domestic residual fuel for ships and boats is estimated by taking the total amount of residual fuel and subtracting out an estimate of international bunker fuel use.

^f Class II and Class III diesel consumption data for 2014 to 2022 is not available. Diesel consumption data for 2014 to 2022 is estimated by applying the historical average fuel usage per carload factor to the annual number of carloads.

^g Other emissions from electricity generation are a result of waste incineration (as the majority of municipal solid waste is combusted in "trash-to-steam" electricity generation plants), electrical transmission and distribution, and a portion of other process uses of carbonates (from pollution control equipment installed in electricity generation plants).

^h Includes only CO₂ from natural gas used to power natural gas pipelines; does not include emissions from electricity use or non-CO₂ gases.

ⁱ Note that the method used to estimate CO₂ emissions from non-transportation mobile sources in this supplementary information table differs from the method used to estimate CO₂ in the industrial and commercial sectors in the *Inventories*, which include CO₂ emissions from all non-transportation mobile sources (see Section 3.1 for the methodology for estimating CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion in this *Inventories*).

^j Includes equipment, such as tractors and combines, as well as fuel consumption from trucks that are used off-road in agriculture.

^k Includes equipment, such as cranes, dumpers, and excavators, as well as fuel consumption from trucks that are used off-road in construction.

^l "Other" includes snowmobiles and other recreational equipment, logging equipment, lawn and garden equipment, railroad equipment, airport equipment, commercial equipment, and industrial equipment, as well as fuel consumption from trucks that are used off-road for commercial/industrial purposes.

Notes: Increases to CH₄ and N₂O emissions from mobile combustion relative to previous *Inventories* are largely due to updates made to the Motor Vehicle Emissions Simulator (MOVES3) model that is used to estimate on-road gasoline vehicle distribution and mileage across the time series, as well as non-transportation mobile fuel consumption. See Section 3.1 CH₄ and N₂O from Mobile Combustion for more detail. This year's *Inventories* uses the Nonroad component of MOVES3 for years 1999 through 2022. In 2016, historical confidential vehicle sales data were re-evaluated to determine the engine technology assignments. First, several light-duty trucks were re-characterized as heavy-duty vehicles based upon gross vehicle weight rating (GVWR) and confidential sales data. Second, the emission standards each vehicle type was assumed to have met were re-examined using confidential sales data. Also, in previous *Inventories*, non-plug-in hybrid electric vehicles (HEVs) were considered alternative fueled vehicles and therefore not included in the engine technology breakouts. For this *Inventories*, HEVs are classified as gasoline vehicles across the entire time series. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table A-91: Transportation and Mobile Source Emissions by Gas (MMT CO₂ Eq.)

Year	1990	2000	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	Percent Change 1990-2022
CO ₂ ^a	1,645.7	1,981.3	1,881.3	1,869.3	1,881.6	1,917.8	1,919.2	1,960.9	1,989.0	2,027.4	2,034.3	1,776.9	1,969.3	1,980.0	20%
N ₂ O	38.4	48.3	28.2	26.2	24.5	22.6	20.8	19.8	18.8	17.7	19.1	16.1	16.8	16.7	-57%
CH ₄	7.2	5.5	3.6	3.4	3.3	3.1	3.1	3.0	2.9	2.8	2.9	2.5	2.6	2.6	-64%
HFC	+	56.	57	52.3	47.3	44.7	42.6	39.9	37.0	35.5	34.0	32.5	31.2	29.6	NA
Total^b	1,691.3	2,086.2	1,970.1	1,951.1	1,956.7	1,988.2	1,985.7	2,023.6	2,047.7	2,083.5	2,090.4	1,828.1	2,020.0	2,029.5	19%

+ Does not exceed 0.05 MMT CO₂ Eq.

NA (Not Applicable), as there were no HFC emissions allocated to the transport sector in 1990, and thus a growth rate cannot be calculated.

^a The method used to estimate CO₂ emissions from non-transportation mobile sources in this supplementary information table differs from the method used to estimate CO₂ in the industrial and commercial sectors in the *Inventory*, which include CO₂ emissions from all non-transportation mobile sources (see Section 3.1 for the methodology for estimating CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion in this *Inventory*).

^b Total excludes other emissions from electricity generation and CH₄ and N₂O emissions from electric rail.

Notes: Gasoline and diesel highway vehicle fuel consumption estimates used to develop CO₂ estimates in this *Inventory* are based on data from FHWA Highway Statistics Table MF-21, MF-27 and ratios developed from MOVES3 to apportion FHWA fuel consumption data to vehicle type and fuel type. For mobile CH₄ and N₂O emissions estimates, gasoline and diesel highway vehicle miles travelled estimates are based on data from FHWA Highway Statistics Table VM-1 (FHWA 1996 through 2023). VMT estimates were then allocated to vehicle type using ratios of VMT per vehicle type to total VMT, derived from EPA's MOVES3 model.

In 2016, historical confidential vehicle sales data was re-evaluated to determine the engine technology assignments. First several light-duty trucks were re-characterized as heavy-duty vehicles based upon gross vehicle weight rating (GVWR) and confidential sales data. Second, the emission standards each vehicle type was assumed to have met were re-examined using confidential sales data. Also, in previous *Inventories*, non-plug-in hybrid electric vehicles (HEVs) were considered alternative fueled vehicles and therefore not included in the engine technology breakouts. For this *Inventory*, HEVs are classified as gasoline vehicles across the entire time series. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Figure A-4: Domestic Greenhouse Gas Emissions by Mode and Vehicle Type, 1990 to 2022

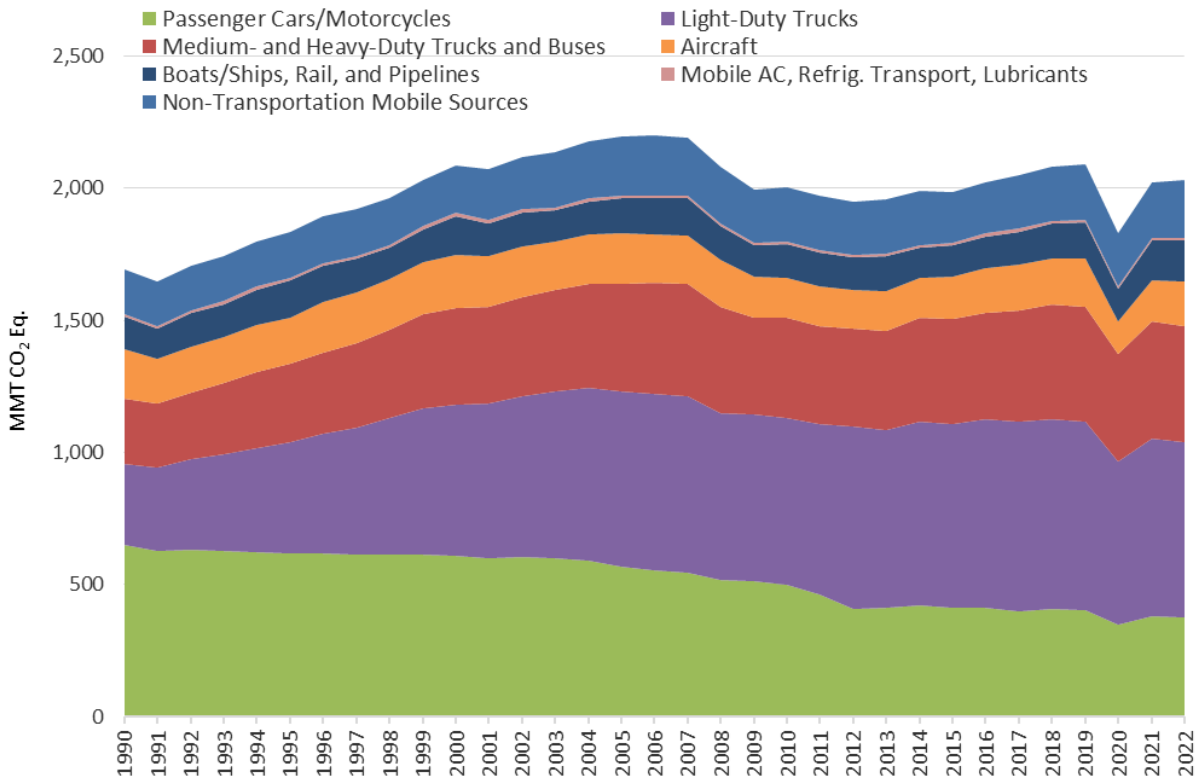


Table A-92: Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Passenger Transportation (MMT CO₂ Eq.)

Vehicle Type	1990	2000	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	Percent Change 1990-2022
On-Road Vehicles^{a,b}	967.5	1,201.3	1,148.7	1,124.6	1,115.7	1,103.4	1,137.5	1,127.7	1,146.8	1,140.0	1,151.6	1,140.0	987.7	1,079.6	1,063.6	10%
Passenger Cars	648.4	602.3	493.7	458.2	401.3	405.2	415.9	405.5	406.2	392.7	398.7	395.5	341.7	374.2	369.5	-43%
Light-Duty Trucks	302.4	575.2	632.0	642.5	688.5	672.1	693.4	693.2	710.9	716.2	720.6	711.7	615.3	671.7	660.2	118%
Buses	13.3	19.3	16.8	17.7	18.8	19.3	21.2	22.3	22.5	23.9	24.9	25.3	24.0	26.1	26.3	98%
Motorcycles	3.4	4.4	6.4	6.3	7.1	6.8	7.0	6.8	7.2	7.2	7.4	7.5	6.7	7.5	7.6	122%
Aircraft	133.6	151.5	124.3	121.7	118.1	122.6	120.4	130.0	139.3	143.6	144.4	151.8	83.4	118.6	135.8	0%
General Aviation	42.0	35.3	26.3	22.2	19.6	23.3	20.5	26.5	34.8	32.9	32.4	33.3	19.2	22.8	26.2	-42%
Commercial																
Aircraft	91.6	116.1	97.9	99.5	98.5	99.4	99.9	103.5	104.6	110.6	112.0	118.5	64.2	95.8	109.5	20%
Recreational Boats	17.2	17.3	14.5	14.0	13.7	13.4	13.2	13.3	13.4	13.6	13.7	13.8	12.7	13.6	13.8	-20%
Passenger Rail	4.4	5.2	6.2	5.9	5.5	5.8	5.7	5.4	5.2	5.1	4.5	4.2	3.6	3.6	3.6	-17%
Total	1,122.6	1,375.3	1,293.7	1,266.3	1,253.0	1,245.2	1,276.9	1,276.3	1,304.8	1,302.2	1,314.2	1,309.8	1,087.4	1,215.4	1,215.0	8%

^a The current *Inventory* includes updated vehicle population data based on the MOVES3 Model.

^b Gasoline and diesel highway vehicle fuel consumption estimates used to develop CO₂ estimates in this *Inventory* are based on data from FHWA Highway Statistics Table MF-21, MF-27 and ratios developed from MOVES3 to apportion FHWA fuel consumption data to vehicle type and fuel type. For mobile CH₄ and N₂O emissions estimates, gasoline and diesel highway vehicle mileage estimates are based on data from FHWA Highway Statistics Table VM-1 (FHWA 1996 through 2023). These total mileage estimates are combined with MOVES3 model ratios to apportion VMT.

Notes: Data from DOE (1993 through 2022) were used to disaggregate emissions from rail and buses. Emissions from HFCs have been included in these estimates. The *Inventory* uses the Nonroad component of MOVES3 for years 1999 through 2022. In 2017, estimates of alternative fuel vehicle mileage for the last ten years were revised to reflect updates made to EIA data on alternative fuel use and vehicle counts. These changes were incorporated into this year's *Inventory* and apply to the 2003 to 2017 time period. For 2017 and later, estimates were made using available data (Browning 2022b).

In 2016, historical confidential vehicle sales data were re-evaluated to determine the engine technology assignments. First, several light-duty trucks were re-characterized as heavy-duty vehicles based upon gross vehicle weight rating (GVWR) and confidential sales data. Second, the emission standards each vehicle type was assumed to have met were re-examined using confidential sales data. Also, in previous *Inventories*, non-plug-in hybrid electric vehicles (HEVs) were considered alternative fueled vehicles and therefore not included in the engine technology breakouts. For this *Inventory*, HEVs are classified as gasoline vehicles across the entire time series. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table A-93: Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Domestic Freight Transportation (MMT CO₂ Eq.)

By Mode	1990	2000	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	Percent Change 1990-2022
Trucking ^{a,b}	234.5	345.4	349.7	348.7	354.8	369.3	375.6	380.0	393.0	404.2	406.9	384.2	414.6	410.8	75%
Freight Rail	34.5	41.3	39.1	38.3	38.6	40.5	38.5	34.9	36.2	37.9	35.4	30.5	31.8	31.9	-8%
Ships and Non-Recreational Boats	29.8	48.5	32.4	26.6	26.3	15.9	20.5	27.3	30.3	27.4	26.3	19.5	37.0	36.0	21%
Pipelines ^c	36.0	35.5	38.6	41.0	46.7	39.8	38.9	39.6	41.7	50.3	58.3	58.0	64.4	69.3	93%
Commercial Aircraft	19.2	24.3	16.0	15.7	15.9	16.2	16.5	16.8	18.4	18.7	19.3	27.8	24.2	21.2	11%
Total	354.0	495.1	475.8	470.3	482.2	481.6	490.0	498.5	519.6	538.4	546.1	520.1	572.1	569.3	61%

^a The current *Inventory* includes updated vehicle population data based on the MOVES3 Model.

^b Gasoline and diesel highway vehicle fuel consumption estimates used to develop CO₂ estimates in this *Inventory* are based on data from FHWA Highway Statistics Table MF-21, MF-27 and ratios developed from MOVES3 to apportion FHWA fuel consumption data to vehicle type and fuel type. For mobile CH₄ and N₂O emissions estimates, gasoline and diesel highway vehicle mileage estimates are based on data from FHWA Highway Statistics Table VM-1 (FHWA 1996 through 2023) and MOVES3 model ratios of VMT per vehicle class to total VMT.

^c Pipelines reflect CO₂ emissions from natural gas-powered pipelines transporting natural gas.

Notes: Data from DOE (1993 through 2022) were used to disaggregate emissions from rail and buses. Emissions from HFCs have been included in these estimates. This year's *Inventory* uses the Nonroad component of MOVES3 for years 1999 through 2022. In 2017, estimates of alternative fuel vehicle mileage for the last ten years were revised to reflect updates made to EIA data on alternative fuel use and vehicle counts. These changes apply to the 2003 to 2017 time period. For 2017 and later, estimates were made using available data (Browning 2022b).

In 2016, historical confidential vehicle sales data were re-evaluated to determine the engine technology assignments. First, several light-duty trucks were re-characterized as heavy-duty vehicles based upon gross vehicle weight rating (GVWR) and confidential sales data. Second, the emission standards each vehicle type was assumed to have met were re-examined using confidential sales data. Also, in previous *Inventories*, non-plug-in hybrid electric vehicles (HEVs) were considered alternative fueled vehicles and therefore not included in the engine technology breakouts. For this *Inventory*, HEVs are classified as gasoline vehicles across the entire time series. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Motor Vehicle Emission Simulator (MOVES)

As noted in the preceding methodology discussion, EPA's Motor Vehicle Emission Simulator (MOVES) is used to derive some of the activity data that are used as inputs to the calculation of greenhouse gas emissions in this *Inventory*. The model is not used to directly estimate greenhouse gas emissions. With respect to estimating CO₂ emissions from the transportation sector, MOVES is used to estimate fuel use by recreational boats and ratios developed from MOVES output are used to apportion FHWA fuel consumption data to vehicle type and fuel type. For non-CO₂ greenhouse gas emissions, MOVES is used to generate the age distribution and age-specific vehicle mileage accumulations for the U.S. vehicle fleet. Additionally, the Nonroad component of MOVES is used to estimate fuel consumption for gasoline- and diesel-powered equipment, and CH₄ and N₂O emission factors for nonroad mobile sources are calculated from engine certification data and weighted by activity estimates calculated by MOVES. Finally, the Supplemental Information on Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Transportation and Other Mobile Sources section of this Annex provides estimates of CO₂ from non-transportation mobile sources, developed from the Nonroad component of MOVES.

The Motor Vehicle Emission Simulator (EPA 2022) is EPA's state-of-the-science emission modeling system that estimates emissions for mobile sources at the national, county, and project level for criteria air pollutants, greenhouse gases, and air toxics. It is a bottom-up emissions model that is designed to estimate emissions from separate physical emission processes depending on the source. MOVES models "fleet average" emissions, rather than emissions from individual vehicles or nonroad equipment types, and MOVES adjusts emission rates to represent real-world conditions. The model covers onroad vehicles such as cars, trucks and buses, and nonroad equipment such as construction and lawn and garden equipment; it does not estimate emissions from aircraft, locomotives, and commercial marine vessels. MOVES accounts for the phase-in of federal emissions standards, vehicle and equipment activity, fuels, temperatures, humidity, and emission control activities such as inspection and maintenance programs for calendar years 1990 and 1999 through 2060. Emissions from onroad and nonroad sources can be modeled at the national or county scale using either model defaults or user-supplied inputs. Emissions from onroad sources can also be modeled at a more detailed "project" scale if the user supplies detailed inputs describing project parameters. While MOVES4 is the latest official version of MOVES the current *Inventory* uses output from MOVES3; previous versions of the model include MOVES2010 and MOVES2014.

MOVES is used by EPA to estimate emission impacts of mobile source regulations and policies, and to generate mobile sector information for national inventories of air pollutants such as the National Emissions *Inventory* and the Air Toxics Screening Assessment. U.S. state and local agencies use MOVES to develop emissions inventories for a variety of regulatory purposes, including the development of state implementation plans, transportation conformity determinations, general conformity evaluations, and analyses required under the National Environmental Policy Act. Others, including academics and interest groups, may also use MOVES to model the effects of policy choices and various mobile source scenarios.

The way MOVES calculates emissions varies depending on the processes and pollutants being modeled, and the vehicle or equipment type. MOVES includes the following emissions processes: running exhaust, start exhaust, hoteling (extended idle exhaust and auxiliary power exhaust), crankcase (running, start, and extended idle), brake wear, evaporative permeation, evaporative fuel vapor venting, evaporative fuel leaks, and refueling displacement vapor and spillage loss.

Running emissions are the archetypal mobile source emissions—exhaust emissions from a running vehicle. Running operation is defined as operation of internal-combustion engines after the engine and emission control systems have stabilized at operating temperature, i.e., "hot-stabilized" operation. The model uses vehicle population information to sort the vehicle population into source bins defined by vehicle source type, fuel type (gas, diesel, etc.), regulatory class, model year and age. Regulatory classes define vehicles with similar emission standards, such as heavy heavy-duty regulatory classes, which may occur in vehicles classified in several different source types, such as long-haul combination, short-haul single-unit and refuse trucks. For each source bin, the model uses vehicle characteristics and activity data (VMT, speed, idle fractions and driving cycles) to estimate the source hours in each running operating mode. The running operating modes are defined by the vehicle's instantaneous vehicle speed, acceleration, and estimated vehicle power. Each source bin and operating mode is associated with an emission rate, and these are multiplied by source hours, adjusted as needed, and summed to estimate the total running emissions. Depending on the vehicle characteristics, MOVES may adjust the running emissions to account for local fuel parameters, air conditioning effects, humidity, inspection and maintenance programs, and fuel economy adjustments.

Onroad "start" emissions are the instantaneous exhaust emissions occur at the engine start (e.g., due to the fuel rich conditions in the cylinder to initiate combustion) as well as the additional running exhaust emissions that occur because the engine and emission control systems have not yet stabilized at the running operating temperature. Operationally, start emissions are defined as the difference in emissions between an exhaust emissions test with an ambient temperature start and the same test with the engine and emission control systems already at operating temperature. As such, the units for start emission rates are instantaneous grams/start. The model uses vehicle population information to sort the vehicle population into source bins defined by vehicle source type, fuel type (gas, diesel, etc.), regulatory class, model year and age. The model uses default data from instrumented vehicles (or user-provided values) to estimate the number of starts for each source bin and to allocate them among eight operating mode bins defined by the amount of time parked ("soak time") prior to the start. Thus, the model accounts for different amounts of cooling of the engine and emission control systems. Each source bin and operating mode has an associated g/start emission rate. Start emissions are also adjusted to account for fuel characteristics, inspection and maintenance programs, and ambient temperatures.

MOVES defines "hoteling" as any long period of time (e.g., > 1 hour) that drivers spend in their long-haul combination truck vehicles during mandated rest times. Hoteling is differentiated from off-network idling because the engines are often idling under load while hoteling (e.g., to maintain cabin climate or run accessories). MOVES computes hoteling emissions only for diesel long-haul combination trucks. The default MOVES hoteling hours are computed as a fixed ratio to the miles these trucks travel on restricted access roads. Hoteling activity is allocated among four operating modes: engine idle ("extended idle"), diesel auxiliary power unit use, battery, or plug-in, and "All Engines and Accessories Off." This allocation varies by model year. MOVES computes emissions for the first two modes based on the hours and source-bin specific emission rates.

Crankcase emissions include combustion products that pass by the piston rings of a compression ignition engine as well as oil droplets from the engine components and engine crankcase that are vented to the atmosphere. In MOVES, onroad crankcase emissions are computed as a ratio to the exhaust emissions, with separate values for running, start and hoteling (extended idle mode only). The crankcase ratio varies by pollutant, source type, fuel type, model year and exhaust process.

MOVES estimates brake wear from on road vehicles using weighted average g/hour rates that consider brake pad composition, number and type of brakes and braking intensity. Brake pads lose material during braking. A portion of this lost material becomes airborne particulate matter. This "brake wear" differs from exhaust particulate matter in its size and chemical composition. The emission rates in MOVES vary by vehicle regulatory class to account for average vehicle weight. Braking activity is modeled as a portion of running activity. In MOVES, the running operating modes for braking, idling and coasting are all modeled as including some amount of braking.

Contact between tires and the road surface causes tires to wear, and a portion of this material becomes airborne. This tire wear differs from exhaust particulate matter in its size and chemical composition. MOVES tire wear rates in g/hr are based on analysis of light-duty vehicle tire wear rates as a function of vehicle speed, extrapolated to other vehicles based on the number and size of tires. The tire wear operating mode bins differ from those used for running emissions and brake wear because they account only for speed and not for acceleration.

Permeation is the migration of hydrocarbons through materials in the fuel system. Permeation emissions are strongly influenced by the materials used for fuel tank walls, hoses and seals, and by the temperature, vapor pressure and ethanol content of the fuel. In MOVES, permeation is estimated only for vehicles using gasoline-based fuels (including E-85). Permeation is estimated for every hour of the day, regardless of activity. Permeation rates in g/hour vary by model year to account for the phase-in of tighter standards. Permeation emissions are adjusted to account for gasoline fuel properties and ambient temperatures.

When gasoline fuel tank temperatures rise due to vehicle operation or increased ambient temperatures, hydrocarbon vapors are generated within the fuel tank. The escape of these vapors is called Tank Vapor Venting or Evaporative Fuel Vapor Venting. This vapor venting may be eliminated with a fully sealed metal fuel tank. More commonly, venting is reduced by using an activated charcoal canister to adsorb the vapors as they are generated; vapors from the canister are later consumed during vehicle operation. However, to prevent pressure build-up, canisters are open to the atmosphere, and after several days without operating, fuel vapors can diffuse through the charcoal or pass freely through a completely saturated canister. Tampering, mal-maintenance, vapor leaks, and system failure can also result in excess vapor venting.

MOVES calculates vapor venting only for vehicles using gasoline-based fuels (including E-85). The tank vapor generated depends on the rise in fuel tank temperature, fuel vapor pressure, ethanol content and altitude. Fuel tank temperature

changes are modeled as a function of 24-hour temperature patterns and default vehicle activity, with different vapor generation rates for vehicles that are operating, “hot soaking” (parked, but still warm) and “cold soaking” (parked at ambient temperature). Vapor venting is modeled as a function of vapor generated, days cold soaking, model-year specific vehicle fuel system characteristics, and age and model year related vapor leak rates.

Evaporative fuel leaks (liquid leaks) are fuels escaping the gasoline fuel system in a non-vapor form. In MOVES, they are referred to as evaporative fuel leaks because they subsequently evaporate into the atmosphere after escaping the vehicle. These leaks may occur due to failures with fuel system materials, or due to tampering or mal-maintenance. Liquid spillage during refueling is modeled separately as part of the refueling process. In MOVES, fuel leak frequency is estimated as a function of vehicle age and vehicle emission standards. Fuel leak size (g/hour) is a function of age and vehicle operating mode (cold soaking, hot soaking or operating).

Refueling emissions are the displaced fuel vapors when liquid fuel is added to the vehicle tank. Refueling spillage is the vapor emissions from any liquid fuel that is spilled during refueling and subsequently evaporates. Diesel vehicles are assumed to have negligible vapor displacement, but MOVES does compute emissions for onroad diesel fuel spillage. Refueling vapor and spillage emissions are estimated from the total volume of fuel dispensed (gallons). This volume is based on previously calculated fuel consumption. In addition, refueling emissions are a function of gasoline vapor pressure, ambient temperatures, the presence of an on-board refueling vapor recovery system on the vehicles, and the use of Stage II vapor recovery controls at the refueling pump.

The MOVES nonroad module estimates emissions as the product of an adjusted emission factor multiplied by rated power, load factor, engine population and activity. Starting with base-year equipment populations by technology type and model year, the model uses growth factors to estimate the population in the analysis year. Estimates of median life at full load, load factors, activity and age distributions are then combined to generate estimates of nonroad emissions by equipment type, fuel type and age. National equipment populations are allocated to the county level using surrogate data. The model uses estimates of annual activity for each equipment type, e.g., expressed in terms of hours of operations or gallons of fuel used per year, to calculate yearly emission inventories. MOVES will also calculate inventories on a seasonal (i.e., summer, fall, winter, spring), monthly, or daily (i.e., weekday or weekend day) basis by allocating annual activity to these smaller time periods. The MOVES nonroad module includes the following emissions processes: running exhaust, crankcase exhaust, refueling displacement vapor and spillage loss (gasoline only), fuel vapor venting (diurnal, hot soak, and running loss), and fuel system permeation (gasoline only).

The MOVES database contains the required emission factors, adjustment factors, fuel data, and default vehicle population and activity data for all U.S. counties to support model runs for calendar years 1990 and 1999–2060. User databases may contain any of the tables that are in the default input database and are used to add or replace records as input by the user. These databases typically contain region-specific fuels, vehicle populations, age distributions, activity, and where applicable, I/M program characteristics. Vehicle and equipment emissions vary by location and time. However, for the most accurate results for a given time and location, MOVES is run for a specific case using accurate local inputs. In contrast, the national results generated with model defaults are calculated based on average inputs that do not fully capture the variation in emissions from time to time and place to place. MOVES allows user input of many parameters, and therefore, the quality of model output will depend on the quality of these inputs, as well as the appropriateness of the model defaults relied on.

The MOVES model is subject to review and evaluation in several different ways, including: peer review, a stakeholder work group, beta testing, evaluation by an industry-funded research group, and comparisons to independent data.

Updates to MOVES model data and algorithms are regularly peer reviewed, following EPA’s peer review policies and procedures. The peer review process encompasses the over two dozen technical reports (<https://www.epa.gov/moves/moves-onroad-technical-reports> and <https://www.epa.gov/moves/nonroad-technical-reports>) that document the model's default inputs and algorithms. Reviewer comments and EPA’s responses to comments are available at <https://cfpub.epa.gov/si/index.cfm>.

The MOVES Review Work Group provides MOVES-related recommendations to EPA via the Mobile Sources Technical Review Subcommittee of the Clean Air Act Advisory Committee. Members of the work group represent a variety of stakeholders and mobile source emissions modeling experts, including vehicle and engine manufacturers, fuel producers, state and local emission modelers, academic researchers, environmental advocates, and affected federal agencies. Throughout the development of MOVES, the EPA presents ongoing analyses, model evaluation, and MOVES updates to

the work group. Notes and presentations from past work group meetings are available at <https://www.epa.gov/moves/moves-model-review-work-group>.

Prior to public release, draft versions of the model are tested by a small group of experienced users who alert EPA to potential errors in the code and provide comments on new model features (e.g., updates to the graphical user interface, installer).

Although not conducted regularly, MOVES has been subject to review by the Coordinating Research Council (CRC), a non-profit corporation supported by the energy and mobility industries. The CRC's most recent review in 2014 included three distinct elements: (1) a critical evaluation of modeling methods, (2) inventory analyses applied to three locations, and (3) a validation of the fuel methodology using independent data sources. The resulting report provided detailed recommendations in 10 key areas. These recommendations helped to prioritize efforts for model development and EPA published a detailed response to the review (EPA 2016).

Evaluating the performance of the MOVES model in comparison to independent data is useful for assessing the model's performance in accurately estimating current emission inventories and forecasting emission trends. It also helps identify areas in need of improvement, guiding future work and research. However, it is not appropriate to evaluate MOVES with comparisons against measurements based only on a few vehicles, or without sufficiently customizing MOVES inputs to account for the measurement conditions (e.g., fleet composition, vehicle activity, meteorology).

One approach to assess the MOVES model's fidelity to real-world vehicle activity is to compare macro-scale/top-down gasoline and diesel fuel sales estimates with bottom-up fuel consumption modeled by MOVES. A study conducted by EPA (Han, 2021) compared fuel consumption estimated from MOVES3 output with national fuel sales data published by FHWA (FHWA Highway Statistics Table MF-27), for calendar years 2005, 2007, 2009, and 2011-2019. The study notes several limitations of the comparison, including: potential inaccuracies in state-level fuel tax data collected by FHWA, inconsistencies between MOVES and FHWA's methodology for allocating highway and off-road fuel use, uncertainties in MOVES activity estimates and fleet characterization (e.g., FHWA excludes "public" vehicles while MOVES includes these sources), and uncertainties in the average fuel energy content values used to convert MOVES total energy output to fuel consumption volumes. Given these limitations, the study found that overall, MOVES3 fuel consumption is higher than FHWA reported data. For calendar years 2016 and later, MOVES3 gasoline and diesel fuel consumption estimates are within 4 percent and 10 percent, respectively, of FHWA estimates. For earlier years, MOVES3 gasoline consumption estimates are within 9 percent of FHWA data while MOVES3 diesel fuel consumption is within 20 percent of FHWA reported values. Note that greater uncertainties exist in the diesel fuel volume data and methodology (e.g., many of the "public" vehicles that are excluded from FHWA fuel sales data but are included in MOVES are diesel-fueled vehicles such as refuse trucks and buses).

Past efforts to evaluate MOVES have prioritized comparisons for the major sources of emissions (e.g., light-duty gasoline, heavy-duty diesel) and local geographic areas where significant independent data are available. In assessing the results, systematic bias observed across multiple data sources was considered indicative of model underperformance. On the other hand, if the model predictions are within the variability of independent measurements, it gives confidence that the model is predicting real-world emissions reasonably well.

Evaluating MOVES emission rates may include comparisons to data from sources such as dynamometer tests, remote sensing devices and portable emission monitoring systems. To capture rare (but influential) high emitters, it is important that the data samples are large and diverse, and it is useful when the comparison data represent known operating conditions. Such controlled comparisons are particularly valuable because the emission rates from the study can be compared with MOVES emission rates using the same activity and fleet variables such as vehicle mix, vehicle age, and vehicle operating mode. EPA has undertaken several studies comparing MOVES emission rates with real-world measurements (e.g., Choi et al. (2017), U.S. EPA (2022)) and found that MOVES is generally within the variability of the measured data.

Other studies compare "localized composite" emissions, using composite emission measurements from many vehicles by tunnel or roadside emission monitors where vehicle emissions are predominant and vehicle activity and fleet mix can be accounted for to some degree. A strength of tunnel and roadside measurements is that they can capture the large sample sizes of vehicles operating in real-world conditions needed to measure "fleet-average" emission rates. However, such comparisons only assess the narrow operating conditions represented at the specific location.

At a more general level, some MOVES evaluations compare regional air quality model results from models such as the Community Multiscale Air Quality Modeling System with air quality monitor and deposition data and satellite data. These

“top-down studies” are useful to assess the overall emissions contribution from all relevant emission sources to air quality measurements. Discrepancies between air quality modeling predictions and measurements can point to deficiencies in the emissions inventory but may be confounded with deficiencies in the air quality model (e.g., modeling transport, boundary layer, deposition, transformation, and other physical and chemical processes). In addition, top-down studies on their own cannot identify the individual sources in the emissions inventory that are responsible for the modeling discrepancy.

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3.3. Methodology for Estimating CO₂ Emissions from Commercial Aircraft Jet Fuel Consumption

IPCC Tier 3B Method: Commercial aircraft jet fuel burn and carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions estimates were developed by the U.S. Federal Aviation Administration (FAA) using radar-informed data from the FAA Enhanced Traffic Management System (ETMS) for 2000 through 2022 as modeled with the Aviation Environmental Design Tool (AEDT). This bottom-up approach is built from modeling dynamic aircraft performance for each flight occurring within an individual calendar year. The analysis incorporates data on the aircraft type, date, flight identifier, departure time, arrival time, departure airport, arrival airport, ground delay at each airport, and real-world flight trajectories. To generate results for a given flight within AEDT, the radar-informed aircraft data is correlated with engine and aircraft performance data to calculate fuel burn and exhaust emissions. Information on exhaust emissions for in-production aircraft engines comes from the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) Aircraft Engine Emissions Databank (EDB). This bottom-up approach is in accordance with the Tier 3B method from the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories.

International Bunkers: The IPCC guidelines define international aviation (International Bunkers) as emissions from flights that depart from one country and arrive in a different country. Bunker fuel emissions estimates for commercial aircraft were developed for this report for 2000 through 2022 using the same radar-informed data modeled with AEDT. Since this process builds estimates from flight-specific information, the emissions estimates for commercial aircraft can include emissions associated with the U.S. territories (i.e., American Samoa, Guam, Puerto Rico, U.S. Virgin Islands, Wake Island, and other U.S. Pacific Islands). However, to allow for the alignment of emissions estimates for commercial aircraft with other data that is provided without the U.S. territories, this annex includes emissions estimates for commercial aircraft both with and without the U.S. territories included.

Time Series and Analysis Update: The FAA incrementally improves the consistency, robustness, and fidelity of the CO₂ emissions modeling for commercial aircraft, which is the basis of the Tier3B inventories presented in this report. While the FAA does not anticipate significant changes to the AEDT model in the future, recommended improvements are limited by budget and time constraints, as well as data availability. For instance, previous reports included reported annual CO₂ emission estimates for 2000 through 2005 that were modeled using the FAA's System for assessing Aviation's Global Emissions (SAGE). That tool and its capabilities were significantly improved after it was incorporated and evolved into AEDT. For this report, the AEDT model was used to generate annual CO₂ emission estimates for 2000, 2005, 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020, 2021, and 2022 only. The reported annual CO₂ emissions values for 2001 through 2004 were estimated from the previously reported SAGE data. Likewise, CO₂ emissions values for 2006 through 2009 were estimated by interpolation to preserve trends from past reports.

Commercial aircraft radar data sets are not available for years prior to 2000. Instead, the FAA applied a Tier3B methodology by developing Official Airline Guide (OAG) schedule-informed estimates modeled with AEDT and great circle trajectories for 1990, 2000 and 2010. The ratios between the OAG schedule-informed and the radar-informed inventories for the years 2000 and 2010 were applied to the 1990 OAG scheduled-informed inventory to generate the best possible CO₂ inventory estimate for commercial aircraft in 1990. The resultant 1990 CO₂ inventory served as the reference for generating additional 1995-1999 emissions estimates, which were established using previously available trends. International consumption estimates for 1991-1999 and domestic consumption estimates for 1991 to 1994 are calculated using fuel consumption estimates from the Bureau of Transportation Statistics (DOT 1991 through 2013), adjusted based on the ratio of DOT to AEDT data.

Notes on the 1990 CO₂ Emissions Inventory for Commercial Aircraft: There are uncertainties associated with the modeled 1990 data that do not exist for the modeled years, 2000 to 2022 data. Radar-based data is not available for 1990. The OAG schedule information generally includes fewer carriers than radar information, and this will result in a different fleet mix, and in turn, different CO₂ emissions than would be quantified using a radar-based data set. For this reason, the FAA adjusted the OAG-informed schedule for 1990 with a ratio based on radar-informed information. In addition, radar trajectories are also generally longer than great circle trajectories. While the 1990 fuel burn data was adjusted to address these differences, it inherently adds greater uncertainty to the revised 1990 commercial aircraft CO₂ emissions as compared to data from 2000 forward. Also, the revised 1990 CO₂ emissions inventory now reflects only commercial aircraft jet fuel consumption, while previous reports may have aggregated jet fuel sales data from non-commercial aircraft into this category. Thus, it would be inappropriate to compare 1990 to future years for other than qualitative purposes.

The 1990 commercial aircraft CO₂ emissions inventory is approximately [18] percent lower than the 2022 CO₂ emissions inventory. It is important to note that the distance flown increased by approximately [59] percent over this [31] year period and that fuel burn and aviation activity trends over the past two decades indicate significant improvements in commercial aviation's ability to provide increased service levels while using less fuel.

Additional information on the AEDT modeling process is available at:

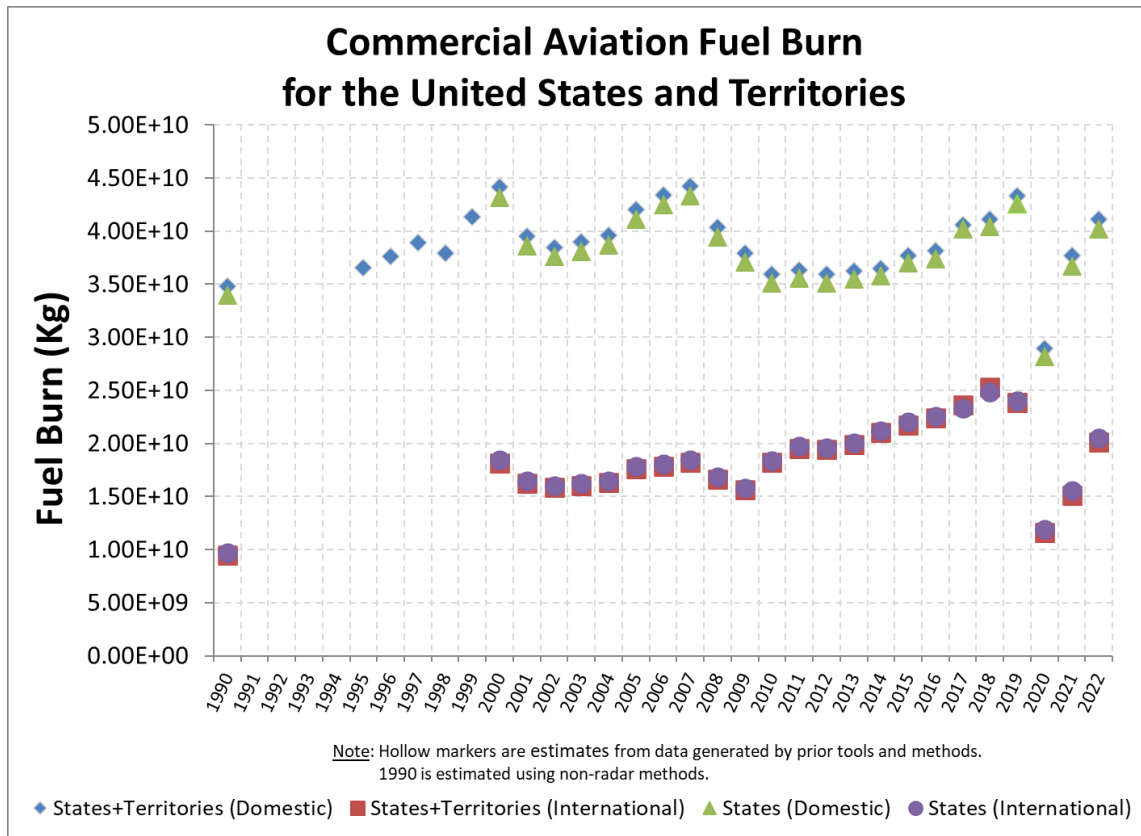
http://www.faa.gov/about/office_org/headquarters_offices/apl/research/models/

Methane Emissions: Contributions of methane (CH₄) emissions from commercial aircraft are reported as zero. Years of scientific measurement campaigns conducted at the exhaust exit plane of commercial aircraft gas turbine engines have repeatedly indicated that CH₄ emissions are consumed over the full mission flight envelope (*Aircraft Emissions of Methane and Nitrous Oxide during the Alternative Aviation Fuel Experiment*, Santoni et al., Environ. Sci. Technol., 2011, 45, 7075-7082). As a result, the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency published that "...methane is no longer considered to be an emission from aircraft gas turbine engines burning Jet A at higher power settings and is, in fact, consumed in net at these higher powers." (Recommended Best Practice for Quantifying Speciated Organic Gas Emissions from Aircraft Equipped with Turbofan, Turbojet and Turboprop Engines, EPA-420-R-09-901, May 27, 2009, <http://www.epa.gov/otag/aviation.htm>) In accordance with the following statements in the 2006 IPCC Guidelines (IPCC 2006), the FAA does not calculate CH₄ emissions for either the domestic or international bunker commercial aircraft jet fuel emissions inventories. "*Methane (CH₄) may be emitted by gas turbines during idle and by older technology engines, but recent data suggest that little or no CH₄ is emitted by modern engines.*" "*Current scientific understanding does not allow other gases (e.g., N₂O and CH₄) to be included in calculation of cruise emissions.*" (IPCC 1999)

Results: For each inventory calendar year the graph and table below include four jet fuel burn values. These values are comprised of domestic and international fuel burn totals for the U.S. 50 States and the U.S. 50 States + Territories. Data are presented for domestic defined as jet fuel burn from any commercial aircraft flight departing and landing in the U.S. 50 States and for the U.S. 50 States + Territories. The data presented as international is respective of the two different domestic definitions, and represents flights departing from the specified domestic area and landing anywhere in the world outside of that area.

Note that the graph and table present more fuel burn for the international U.S. 50 States + Territories than for the international U.S. 50 States. This is because the flights between the 50 states and U.S. Territories are "international" when only the 50 states are defined as domestic, but they are "domestic" for the U.S. 50 States + Territories definition.

Figure A-5: Commercial Aviation Fuel Burn for the United States and Territories



2017	Domestic U.S. 50 States and U.S. Territories	6,264,650,997	13,475	1,819	40,560,206,261	128.0
	International U.S. 50 States and U.S. Territories	1,944,104,275	7,841	1,059	23,602,935,694	74.5
	Domestic U.S. 50 States	6,214,083,068	13,358	1,803	40,207,759,885	126.9
	International U.S. 50 States	1,912,096,739	7,755	1,047	23,343,627,689	73.6
2018	Domestic U.S. 50 States and U.S. Territories	6,408,870,104	13,650	1,843	41,085,494,597	129.6
	International U.S. 50 States and U.S. Territories	2,037,055,865	8,402	1,134	25,291,329,878	79.8
	Domestic U.S. 50 States	6,318,774,158	13,425	1,812	40,410,478,534	127.5
	International U.S. 50 States	2,066,756,708	8,254	1,114	24,843,232,462	78.4
2019	Domestic U.S. 50 States and U.S. Territories	6,721,417,987	14,397	1,944	43,334,968,184	136.7
	International U.S. 50 States and U.S. Territories	1,980,425,952	7,908	1,068	23,803,403,228	75.1
	Domestic U.S. 50 States	6,617,074,577	14,131	1,908	42,535,165,758	134.2
	International U.S. 50 States	2,008,158,986	7,973	1,076	23,997,773,004	75.7
2020	Domestic U.S. 50 States and U.S. Territories	4,391,123,811	9,613	1,298	28,934,254,672	91.3
	International U.S. 50 States and U.S. Territories	910,801,671	3,863	521	11,626,780,467	36.7
	Domestic U.S. 50 States	4,297,034,877	9,358	1,263	28,167,145,166	88.9
	International U.S. 50 States	944,600,496	3,954	534	11,900,792,661	37.5
2021	Domestic U.S. 50 States and U.S. Territories	5,930,926,254	12,527	1,691	37,706,548,317	119.0
	International U.S. 50 States and U.S. Territories	1,287,078,625	5,013	677	15,089,773,728	47.6
	Domestic U.S. 50 States	5,800,480,719	12,207	1,648	36,742,811,013	115.9
	International U.S. 50 States	1,346,199,492	5,156	696	15,520,560,694	49.0
2022	Domestic U.S. 50 States and U.S. Territories	6,469,480,586	13,654	1,843	41,099,281,239	129.7
	International U.S. 50 States and U.S. Territories	1,757,904,798	6,682	902	20,112,901,563	63.5
	Domestic U.S. 50 States	6,344,925,589	13,354	1,803	40,195,855,499	126.8
	International U.S. 50 States	1,814,091,613	6,816	920	20,515,625,892	64.7

*Estimates for these years were derived from previously reported tools and methods.

References

IPCC (2006) *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories*. The National Greenhouse Gas Inventories Programme, The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. [H.S. Eggleston, L. Buendia, K. Miwa, T. Ngara, and K. Tanabe (eds.)]. Hayama, Kanagawa, Japan.

IPCC (1999) *Aviation and the Global Atmosphere*. Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. [J.E. Penner, et al. (eds.)]. Cambridge University Press. Cambridge, United Kingdom.

Santoni, G., B. Lee, E. Wood, S. Herndon, R. Miake-Lye, S. Wofsy, J. McManus, D. Nelson, M. Zahniser (2011) Aircraft emissions of methane and nitrous oxide during the alternative aviation fuel experiment. *Environ Sci Technol*. 2011 Aug 15; 45(16):7075-82.

3.4. Methodology for Estimating CH₄ Emissions from Coal Mining

EPA uses an IPCC Tier 3 method for estimating CH₄ emissions from underground mining and an IPCC Tier 2 method for estimating CH₄ emissions from surface mining and post-mining activities (for both coal production from underground mines and surface mines). The methodology for estimating CH₄ emissions from coal mining consists of two steps:

- **Estimate emissions from underground mines.** These emissions have two sources: ventilation systems and degasification systems. They are estimated using mine-specific data, then summed to determine total CH₄ liberated. The CH₄ recovered and used is then subtracted from this total, resulting in an estimate of net emissions to the atmosphere.
- **Estimate emissions from surface mines and post-mining activities.** This step does not use mine-specific data; rather, it consists of multiplying coal-basin-specific coal production by coal-basin-specific gas content and an emission factor.

Step 1: Estimate CH₄ Liberated and CH₄ Emitted from Underground Mines

Underground mines generate CH₄ from ventilation systems and degasification systems. Some mines recover and use the generated CH₄, thereby reducing emissions to the atmosphere. Total CH₄ emitted from underground mines equals the CH₄ liberated from ventilation systems, plus the CH₄ liberated from degasification systems, minus CH₄ recovered and used.

Step 1.1: Estimate CH₄ Liberated from Ventilation Systems

All coal mines with detectable CH₄ emissions use ventilation systems to ensure that CH₄ levels remain within safe concentrations. Many coal mines do not have detectable levels of CH₄; others emit several million cubic feet per day (MMCFD) from their ventilation systems. On a quarterly basis, the U.S. Mine Safety and Health Administration (MSHA) measures CH₄ concentration levels at underground mines. MSHA maintains a database of measurement data from all underground mines with detectable levels of CH₄ in their ventilation air (MSHA 2023).⁵⁹ Based on quarterly measurements, MSHA estimates average daily CH₄ liberated at each of these underground mines.

For 1990 through 1999, average daily CH₄ emissions from MSHA were multiplied by the number of days in the year (i.e., coal mine assumed in operation for all four quarters) to determine the annual emissions for each mine. For 2000 through 2022, the average daily CH₄ emission rate for each mine is determined using the CH₄ total for all data measurement events conducted during the calendar year and total duration of all data measurement events (in days). The calculated average daily CH₄ emissions were then multiplied by 365 days to estimate annual ventilation emissions (or 366 in the case of a leap year).

Total ventilation emissions for a particular year are estimated by summing emissions from individual mines.

Since 2011, the nation's "gassiest" underground coal mines—those that liberate more than 36,500,000 cubic feet of CH₄ per year (about 17,525 MT CO₂ Eq.)—have been required to report to EPA's GHGRP (EPA 2023).⁶⁰ Mines that report to EPA's GHGRP must report quarterly measurements of CH₄ emissions from ventilation systems; they have the option of recording their own measurements, or using the measurements taken by MSHA as part of that agency's quarterly safety inspections of all mines in the U.S. with detectable CH₄ concentrations.

Since 2013, ventilation emission estimates have been calculated based on both EPA's GHGRP⁶¹ data submitted by underground mines, and on mine-specific CH₄ measurement data obtained directly from MSHA for the remaining mines. The CH₄ liberated from ventilation systems is estimated by summing the emissions from the mines reporting to EPA's GHGRP and emissions based on MSHA measurements for the remaining mines not reporting to EPA's GHGRP.

⁵⁹ MSHA records coal mine methane readings with concentrations of greater than 50 ppm (parts per million) methane. Readings below this threshold are considered non-detectable.

⁶⁰ Underground coal mines report to EPA under subpart FF of EPA's GHGRP (40 CFR Part 98). In 2022, 61 underground coal mines reported to the program.

⁶¹ In implementing improvements and integrating data from EPA's GHGRP, the EPA followed the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories (IPCC 2011).

Degasification volumes for the life of mined-through, pre-mining wells are attributed to the mine as emissions in the year in which the well is mined through.⁶² EPA's GHGRP does not require gas production from virgin coal seams (coalbed methane) to be reported by coal mines under Subpart FF. Most pre-mining wells drilled from the surface are considered coalbed methane wells and are reported under another subpart of the program (Subpart W, "Petroleum and Natural Gas Systems"). As a result, for the four mines with degasification systems that include pre-mining wells that were mined through in 2022, EPA's GHGRP information was supplemented with historical data from state gas well production databases and mine-specific information regarding the dates on which pre-mining wells were mined through (GSA 2023; JWR 2010; El Paso 2009; ERG 2023). For pre-mining wells, the cumulative CH₄ production from the well is totaled using gas sales data and is considered liberated from the mine's degasification system the year in which the well is mined through.

Reports to EPA's GHGRP with CH₄ liberated from degasification systems are reviewed for errors in reporting. For some mines, GHGRP data are corrected for the *Inventory* based on expert judgment. Common errors include reporting CH₄ liberated as CH₄ destroyed and vice versa. Other errors include reporting CH₄ destroyed without reporting any CH₄ liberated by degasification systems. In the rare cases where GHGRP data are inaccurate and gas sales data are unavailable, estimates of CH₄ liberated are based on historical CH₄ liberation rates. No QA/QC issues or errors were identified in the 2022 subpart FF data.

Step 1.3: Estimate CH₄ Recovered from Ventilation and Degasification Systems, and Utilized or Destroyed (Emissions Avoided)

There were 12 active coal mines with operational CH₄ recovery and use projects in 2022, including two mines that had two recovery and use projects, each. Thirteen of these projects involved degasification systems, in place at twelve mines, and one involved ventilation air methane (VAM). Eleven of these mines sold the recovered CH₄ to a pipeline, including one mine that used CH₄ to fuel a thermal coal dryer. One mine destroyed the recovered CH₄ (VAM) using Regenerative Thermal Oxidation (RTO) without energy recovery and enclosed flares. One mine used CH₄ to heat mine ventilation air, however data are unavailable for estimating CH₄ recovery at this mine.

The CH₄ recovered and used (or destroyed) at the twelve coal mines described above were estimated using the following methods:

- EPA's GHGRP data was exclusively used to estimate the CH₄ recovered and used from six mines that deployed degasification systems in 2022. Based on quarterly measurements of gas flow and CH₄ concentrations, the GHGRP summary data for degasification destruction at each mine were added together to estimate the CH₄ recovered and used from degasification systems.
- State sales data were used to supplement the GHGRP data to estimate CH₄ recovered and used from five mines that deployed degasification systems in 2022 (DMME 2023; GSA 2023; ERG 2023; WVGES 2023). Four of these mines intersected pre-mining wells in 2022. Supplemental information was used for these mines because estimating CH₄ recovery and use from pre-mining wells requires additional data (data not reported under Subpart FF of EPA's GHGRP; see discussion in step 1.2 above) to account for the emissions avoided prior to the well being mined through. The 2022 data came from state gas production databases (DMME 2023; GSA 2023; ERG 2023; WVGES 2023), as well as mine-specific information on the timing of mined-through, pre-mining wells (JWR 2010; El Paso 2009, ERG 2019-2023). For pre-mining wells, the cumulative CH₄ production from the wells was totaled using gas sales data and was considered to be CH₄ recovered and used from the mine's degasification system in the year in which the well was mined through.
- For the single mine that employed VAM for CH₄ recovery and use, the estimates of CH₄ recovered and used were obtained from the mine's offset verification statement (OVS) submitted to the California Air Resources Board (CARB) (McElroy OVS 2023).

Step 2: Estimate CH₄ Emitted from Surface Mines and Post-Mining Activities

Mine-specific data are not available for estimating CH₄ emissions from surface coal mines or for post-mining activities. For surface mines, basin-specific coal production data obtained from the Energy Information Administration's *Annual*

⁶² A well is "mined through" when coal mining development or the working face intersects the borehole or well.

Coal Report are multiplied by basin-specific gas contents and a 150 percent emission factor (to account for CH₄ from over- and under-burden) to estimate CH₄ emissions (King 1994; Saghafi 2013). For post-mining activities, basin-specific coal production data are multiplied by basin-specific gas contents and a mid-range 32.5 percent emission factor accounting for CH₄ desorption during coal transportation and storage (Creedy 1993). Basin-specific *in situ* gas content data were compiled from AAPG (1984) and USBM (1986). Beginning in 2006, revised data on *in situ* CH₄ content and emission factors have been used (EPA 1996, 2005).

Step 2.1: Define the Geographic Resolution of the Analysis and Collect Coal Production Data

The first step in estimating CH₄ emissions from surface mining and post-mining activities is to define the geographic resolution of the analysis and to collect coal production data at that level of resolution. The analysis is conducted by coal basin as defined in Table A-96, which presents coal basin definitions by basin and by state.

The Energy Information Administration’s *Annual Coal Report* (EIA 2023) includes state- and county-specific underground and surface coal production by year. To calculate production by basin, the state-level data are grouped into coal basins using the basin definitions listed in Table A-96. For two states—West Virginia and Kentucky—county-level production data are used for the basin assignments because coal production occurred in geologically distinct coal basins within these states. Table A-97 presents the coal production data aggregated by basin.

Step 2.2: Estimate Emission Factors for Each Emissions Type

Emission factors for surface-mined coal were developed from the *in situ* CH₄ content of the surface coal in each basin. Based on analyses conducted in Canada and Australia on coals similar to those present in the United States (King 1994; Saghafi 2013), the surface mining emission factor used was conservatively estimated to be 150 percent of the *in situ* CH₄ content of the basin. Furthermore, the post-mining emission factors used were estimated to be 25 to 40 percent of the average *in situ* CH₄ content in the basin. For this analysis, the post-mining emission factor was determined to be 32.5 percent of the *in situ* CH₄ content in the basin. Table A-98 presents the average *in situ* content for each basin, along with the resulting emission factor estimates.

Step 2.3: Estimate CH₄ Emitted

The total amount of CH₄ emitted from surface mines and post-mining activities is calculated by multiplying the coal production in each basin by the appropriate emission factors.

Table A-96 lists each of the major coal mine basins in the United States and the states in which they are located. As shown in Figure A-6, several coal basins span several states. Table A-97 shows annual underground, surface, and total coal production (in short tons) for each coal basin. Table A-98 shows the surface, post-surface, and post-underground emission factors used for estimating CH₄ emissions for each of the categories. For underground mines, Table A-99 presents annual estimates of CH₄ emissions for ventilation and degasification systems, and CH₄ recovered and used. Table A-100 presents annual estimates of total CH₄ emissions from underground, post-underground, surface, and post-surface activities.

Table A-96: Coal Basin Definitions by Basin and by State

Basin	States
Northern Appalachian Basin	Maryland, Ohio, Pennsylvania, West Virginia North
Central Appalachian Basin	Kentucky East, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia South
Warrior Basin	Alabama, Mississippi
Illinois Basin	Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky West
Southwest and Rockies Basin	Arizona, California, Colorado, New Mexico, Utah
North Great Plains Basin	Montana, North Dakota, Wyoming
West Interior Basin	Arkansas, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Missouri, Oklahoma, Texas
Northwest Basin	Alaska, Washington
State	Basin
Alabama	Warrior Basin
Alaska	Northwest Basin
Arizona	Southwest and Rockies Basin
Arkansas	West Interior Basin
California	Southwest and Rockies Basin
Colorado	Southwest and Rockies Basin

Illinois	Illinois Basin
Indiana	Illinois Basin
Iowa	West Interior Basin
Kansas	West Interior Basin
Kentucky (east)	Central Appalachian Basin
Kentucky (west)	Illinois Basin
Louisiana	West Interior Basin
Maryland	Northern Appalachian Basin
Mississippi	Warrior Basin
Missouri	West Interior Basin
Montana	North Great Plains Basin
New Mexico	Southwest and Rockies Basin
North Dakota	North Great Plains Basin
Ohio	Northern Appalachian Basin
Oklahoma	West Interior Basin
Pennsylvania	Northern Appalachian Basin
Tennessee	Central Appalachian Basin
Texas	West Interior Basin
Utah	Southwest and Rockies Basin
Virginia	Central Appalachian Basin
Washington	Northwest Basin
West Virginia South	Central Appalachian Basin
West Virginia North	Northern Appalachian Basin
Wyoming	North Great Plains Basin

Figure A-6: Locations of U.S. Coal Basins

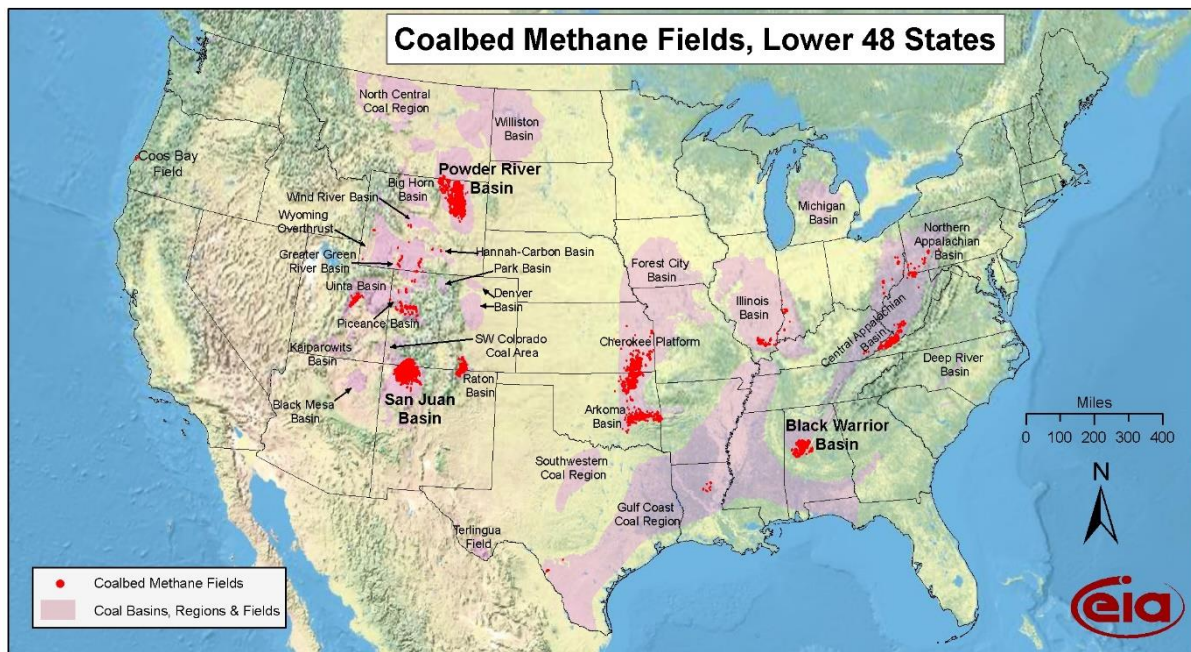


Table A-97: Annual Coal Production (Thousand Short Tons)

Basin	1990	2005	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Underground Coal Production	423,556	368,612	275,361	267,373	195,528	220,597	222,143
N. Appalachia	103,865	111,151	97,070	97,905	71,998	84,265	83,269

West Virginia Geological & Economic Survey (WVGES) (2023) Oil & Gas Production Data. Available online at <http://www.wvgs.wvnet.edu/www/datastat/datastat.htm>.

3.5. Methodology for Estimating CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O Emissions from Petroleum Systems

For details on the emissions, emission factors, activity data, data sources, and methodologies for each year from 1990 to 2022 please see the spreadsheet file annexes for the current (i.e., 1990 to 2022) *Inventory*, available at <https://www.epa.gov/ghgemissions/stakeholder-process-natural-gas-and-petroleum-systems-1990-2022-inventory>.

As described in the main body text on Petroleum Systems, the *Inventory* methodology involves the calculation of CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O emissions for approximately 100 emissions sources, and then the summation of emissions for each petroleum systems segment. The approach for calculating emissions for petroleum systems generally involves the application of emission factors to activity data.

Emission Factors

Table 3.5-2, Table 3.5-7, and Table 3.5-10 show CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O emissions, respectively, for all sources in Petroleum Systems, for all time series years. Table 3.5-3, Table 3.5-8, and Table 3.5-11 show the CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O average emission factors, respectively, for all sources in Petroleum Systems, for all time series years. These emission factors are calculated by dividing net emissions by activity. Therefore, in a given year, these emission factors reflect the estimated contribution from controlled and uncontrolled fractions of the source population.

Additional detail on the basis for emission factors used across the time series is provided in Table 3.5-4, Table 3.5-9, Table 3.5-12, and below.

In addition to the Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program (GHGRP), key references for emission factors for CH₄ and non-combustion-related CO₂ emissions from the U.S. petroleum industry include a 1999 EPA/Radian report *Methane Emissions from the U.S. Petroleum Industry* (EPA/Radian 1999), which contained the most recent and comprehensive determination of CH₄ emission factors for CH₄-emitting activities in the oil industry at that time, a 1999 EPA/ICF draft report *Estimates of Methane Emissions from the U.S. Oil Industry* (EPA/ICF 1999) which is largely based on the 1999 EPA/Radian report, and a detailed study by the Gas Research Institute and EPA *Methane Emissions from the Natural Gas Industry* (EPA/GRI 1996). These studies still represent best available data in many cases—in particular, for the early years of the time series.

Data from studies and EPA's GHGRP (EPA 2023a) allows for emission factors to be calculated that account for adoption of control technologies and emission reduction practices. For several sources, EPA has developed control category-specific emission factors from recent data that are used over the time series (paired with control category-specific activity data that fluctuates to reflect control adoption over time). For oil well completions with hydraulic fracturing, controlled and uncontrolled emission factors were developed using GHGRP data. For associated gas, separate emission estimates are developed from GHGRP data for venting and flaring. For oil tanks, emissions estimates were developed for large and small tanks with flaring or VRU control, without control devices, and with upstream malfunctioning separator dump valves. For pneumatic controllers, separate estimates are developed for low bleed, high bleed, and intermittent controllers. Some sources in Petroleum Systems that use methodologies based on GHGRP data use a basin-level aggregation approach, wherein EPA calculates basin-specific emissions and/or activity factors for basins that contribute at least 10 percent of total annual emissions (on a CO₂ Eq. basis) from the source in any year—and combines all other basins into one grouping. This methodology is applied for associated gas venting and flaring and miscellaneous production flaring. Other sources in the onshore production segment use basin-specific emissions and/or activity factors for all basins that reported data to subpart W and use subpart W averages for all basins that did not report data to the GHGRP. This methodology is applied to pneumatic controllers, chemical injection pumps, wellpad equipment leaks, production storage tanks, and completions and workovers (EPA 2023b; EPA 2023c). Produced Water CH₄ estimates are calculated using annual produced water quantities (Enverus 2023 and EPA 2023d) and an emission factor from EPA's *Nonpoint Oil and Gas Emission Estimation Tool* (EPA 2017b).

For the refining segment, EPA has directly used the GHGRP data for all emission sources for recent years (2010 forward) (EPA 2023a) and developed source level throughput-based emission factors from GHGRP data to estimate emissions in earlier time series years (1990 to 2009). For some sources within refineries, EPA continues to apply the historical emission factors for all time series years. All refineries have been required to report CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O emissions to GHGRP for all major activities since 2010. The national totals of these emissions for each activity were used for the 2010 to 2022 emissions. The national emission totals for each activity were divided by refinery feed rates for four *Inventory*

years (2010 to 2013) to develop average activity-specific emission factors, which were used to estimate national emissions for each refinery activity from 1990 to 2009 based on national refinery feed rates for each year (EPA 2015b).

Offshore emissions are taken from analysis of the *Gulfwide Emission Inventory Studies* and GHGRP data (BOEM 2023a-d; EPA 2023a; EPA 2020). Emission factors are calculated for offshore facilities located in the Gulf of Mexico, Pacific, and Alaska regions.

When a CO₂-specific emission factor is not available for a source, the CO₂ emission factors were derived from the corresponding source CH₄ emission factors. The amount of CO₂ in the crude oil stream changes as it passes through various equipment in petroleum production operations. As a result, four distinct stages/streams with varying CO₂ contents exist. The four streams that are used to estimate the emissions factors are the associated gas stream separated from crude oil, hydrocarbons flashed out from crude oil (such as in storage tanks), whole crude oil itself when it leaks downstream, and gas emissions from offshore oil platforms. For this approach, CO₂ emission factors are estimated by multiplying the existing CH₄ emissions factors by a conversion factor, which is the ratio of CO₂ content to methane content for the particular stream. Ratios of CO₂ to CH₄ volume in emissions are presented in Table 3.5-1.

N₂O emission factors were calculated using GHGRP data. For each flaring emission source calculation methodology that uses GHGRP data, the existing source-specific methodology was applied to calculate N₂O emission factors.

Activity Data

Table 3.5-5 shows the activity data for all sources in Petroleum Systems, for all time series years. Additional detail on the basis for activity data used across the time series is provided in Table 3.5-6, and below.

For many sources, complete activity data were not available for all years of the time series. In such cases, one of three approaches was employed. Where appropriate, the activity data were calculated from related statistics using ratios developed based on EPA 1996, and/or GHGRP data. For major equipment (equipment leak categories), pneumatic controllers, chemical injection pumps, oil tanks, and completions and workovers, GHGRP Subpart W data were used to develop activity factors (e.g., count per well) that are applied to calculated activity in recent years; to populate earlier years of the time series, linear interpolation is used to connect GHGRP-based estimates with existing estimates in earlier years of the time series (e.g., 1990 to 1992). In other cases, the activity data were held constant from 1990 through 2014 based on EPA (1999). Lastly, the previous year's data were used when data for the current year were unavailable.

For offshore production in the GOM, the number of active major and minor complexes are used as activity data. For offshore production in the Pacific and Alaska region, the activity data are region-specific production. The activity data for the total crude transported in the transportation segment are not available, therefore the activity data for the refining sector (i.e., refinery feed in 1000 bbl/year) was also used for the transportation sector, applying an assumption that all crude transported is received at refineries. In the few cases where no data were located, oil industry data based on expert judgment were used. In the case of non-combustion CO₂ and N₂O emission sources, the activity factors are the same as for CH₄ emission sources. In some instances, where recent time series data (e.g., year 2022) are not yet available, year 2021 data were used as proxy.

Methodology for well counts and events

EPA used DrillingInfo and Prism, production databases maintained by Enverus Inc. (Enverus 2023), covering U.S. oil and natural gas wells to populate time series activity data for active oil wells, oil wells drilled, and oil well completions and workovers with hydraulic fracturing. For more information on Enverus data processing, please see Annex 3.6 Methodology for Estimating CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O from Natural Gas Systems.

Reductions data: Federal regulations

Regulatory actions reducing emissions in the current *Inventory* include the New Source Performance Standards (NSPS) and National Emission Standards for Hazardous Air Pollutants (NESHAP) regulations for dehydrator vents in the production segment.

The *Inventory* reflects the NSPS for oil and gas through the use of a net factor approach that captures shifts to lower emitting technologies required by the regulation. Examples include separating oil well completions and workovers with hydraulic fracturing into four categories and developing control technology-specific methane emission factors and year-specific activity data for each category; establishing control category-specific emission factors and associated year-specific activity data for oil tanks; and calculating year-specific activity data for pneumatic controller bleed categories.

In regard to the oil and natural gas industry, the NESHAP regulation addresses HAPs from the oil and natural gas production sectors and the natural gas transmission and storage sectors of the industry. Though the regulation deals specifically with HAPs reductions, methane emissions are also incidentally reduced.

NESHAP driven reductions from storage tanks are estimated with net emission methodologies that take into account controls implemented due to regulations.

Methane, Carbon Dioxide, and Nitrous Oxide Emissions by Emission Source for Each Year

Annual CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O emissions for each source were calculated by multiplying the activity data for each year by the corresponding emission factor. These annual emissions for each activity were then summed to estimate the total annual CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O emissions, respectively. Emissions at a segment level are shown in Table 3.5-2, Table 3.5-7, and Table 3.5-10.

Refer to the 1990-2022 *Inventory* section at <https://www.epa.gov/ghgemissions/natural-gas-and-petroleum-systems> for the following data tables, in spreadsheet format:

- Table 3.5-1: Ratios of CO₂ to CH₄ Volume in Emissions from Petroleum Production Field Operations
- Table 3.5-2: CH₄ Emissions (kt) for Petroleum Systems, by Segment and Source, for All Years
- Table 3.5-3: Average CH₄ Emission Factors (kg/unit activity) for Petroleum Systems Sources, for All Years
- Table 3.5-4: CH₄ Emission Factors for Petroleum Systems, Data Sources/Methodology
- Table 3.5-5: Activity Data for Petroleum Systems Sources, for All Years
- Table 3.5-6: Activity Data for Petroleum Systems, Data Sources/Methodology
- Table 3.5-7: CO₂ Emissions (kt) for Petroleum Systems, by Segment and Source, for All Years
- Table 3.5-8: Average CO₂ Emission Factors (kg/unit activity) for Petroleum Systems Sources, for All Years
- Table 3.5-9: CO₂ Emission Factors for Petroleum Systems, Data Sources/Methodology
- Table 3.5-10: N₂O Emissions (kt) for Petroleum Systems, by Segment and Source, for All Years
- Table 3.5-11: Average N₂O Emission Factors (kg/unit activity) for Petroleum Systems Sources, for All Years
- Table 3.5-12: N₂O Emission Factors for Petroleum Systems, Data Sources/Methodology
- Table 3.5-13: Annex 3.5 Electronic Tables – References
- Table 3.5-14: Basin-Level CH₄ Emissions (kt) for Select Petroleum Systems Onshore Production Sources
- Table 3.5-15: Basin-Level CO₂ Emissions (kt) for Select Petroleum Systems Onshore Production Sources
- Table 3.5-16: Basin-Level Activity Factors for Select Petroleum Systems Onshore Production Sources
- Table 3.5-17: Basin-Level Activity Data for Select Petroleum Systems Onshore Production Sources
- Table 3.5-18: Average Basin-Level CH₄ Emission Factors (kg/unit activity) for Select Petroleum Systems Onshore Production Sources, for All Years
- Table 3.5-19: Average Basin-Level CO₂ Emission Factors (kg/unit activity) for Select Petroleum Systems Onshore Production Sources, for All Years
- Table 3.5-20: Basin-Level Activity Data for Select Petroleum Systems Onshore Production Sources, Data Sources/Methodology
- Table 3.5-21: Basin-Level CH₄ Emission Factors for Select Petroleum Systems Onshore Production Sources, Data Sources/Methodology
- Table 3.5-22: Basin-Level CO₂ Emission Factors for Select Petroleum Systems Onshore Production Sources, Data Sources/Methodology
- Table 3.5-23: Basin-Level References

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3.6. Methodology for Estimating CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O Emissions from Natural Gas Systems

For details on the emissions, emission factors, activity data, data sources, and methodologies for each year from 1990 to 2022 please see the spreadsheet file annexes for the current (i.e., 1990 to 2022) *Inventory*, available at <https://www.epa.gov/ghgemissions/stakeholder-process-natural-gas-and-petroleum-systems-1990-2022-inventory>.

As described in the main body text on Natural Gas Systems, the *Inventory* methodology involves the calculation of CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O emissions for over 100 emissions sources, and the summation of emissions for each natural gas segment. The approach for calculating emissions for natural gas systems generally involves the application of emission factors to activity data. For many sources, the approach uses technology-specific emission factors or emission factors that vary over time and take into account changes to technologies and practices, which are used to calculate net emissions directly. For others, the approach uses what are considered “potential methane factors” and reduction data to calculate net emissions.

Emission Factors

Table 3.6-1, Table 3.6-10, and Table 3.6-14 show CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O emissions, respectively, for all sources in Natural Gas Systems, for all time series years. Table 3.6-2, Table 3.6-12, and Table 3.6-15 show the CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O average emission factors, respectively, for all sources in Natural Gas Systems, for all time series years. These emission factors are calculated by dividing net emissions by activity. Therefore, in a given year, these emission factors reflect the estimated contribution from controlled and uncontrolled fractions of the source population and any source-specific reductions (see below section “Reductions Data”); additionally, for sources based on the GRI/EPA study, the values take into account methane compositions from GTI 2001 adjusted year to year using gross production for National Energy Modeling System (NEMS) oil and gas supply module regions from the EIA. These adjusted region-specific annual CH₄ compositions are presented in Table 3.6-3 (for general sources), Table 3.6-4 (for gas wells without hydraulic fracturing), and Table 3.6-5 (for gas wells with hydraulic fracturing).

Additional detail on the basis for the CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O emission factors used across the time series is provided in Table 3.6-6, Table 3.6-13, Table 3.6-16, and below.

Key references for emission factors for CH₄ and non-combustion-related CO₂ emissions from the U.S. natural gas industry include the 1996 Gas Research Institute (GRI) and EPA study (GRI/EPA 1996), the Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program (GHGRP) (EPA 2023), and others.

The GRI/EPAGRI/EPA study developed over 80 CH₄ emission factors to characterize emissions from the various components within the operating stages of the U.S. natural gas system for base year 1992. Since the time of this study, practices and technologies have changed. This study still represents best available data in many cases—in particular, for early years of the time series.

Data from studies and EPA’s GHGRP (EPA 2023) allow for emission factors to be calculated that account for adoption of control technologies and emission reduction practices. For some sources, EPA has developed control category-specific emission factors from recent data that are used over the time series (paired with control category-specific activity data that fluctuates to reflect control adoption over time). In other cases, EPA retains emission factors from the GRI/EPA study for early time series years (1990 to 1992), applies updated emission factors in recent years (e.g., 2011 forward), and uses interpolation to calculate emission factors for intermediate years. For some sources, EPA continues to apply the GRI/EPA emission factors for all time series years, and accounts for emission reductions through data reported to Gas STAR or estimated based on regulations (see below section “Reductions Data”). For the following sources in the exploration and production segments, EPA has used GHGRP data to calculate net emission factors and establish source type and/or control type subcategories:

- For gas well completions and workovers with hydraulic fracturing, separate emissions estimates were developed for hydraulically fractured completions and workovers that vent, flared hydraulic fracturing completions and workovers, hydraulic fracturing completions and workovers with reduced emissions completions (RECs), and hydraulic fracturing completions and workovers with RECs that flare. The estimates were developed for each basin that reported to subpart W.

- For gas well completions without hydraulic fracturing, separate emissions estimates were developed for completions that vent and completions that flare. The estimates were developed for each basin that reported to subpart W.
- For liquids unloading, separate emissions estimates were developed for each basin that reported to Subpart W for wells with plunger lifts and wells without plunger lifts.
- For condensate tanks, emissions estimates were developed for each basin that reported to subpart W for large and small tanks with flaring or vapor recovery unit (VRU) control, without control devices, and with upstream malfunctioning separator dump valves.
- For pneumatic controllers, separate estimates are developed for low bleed, high bleed, and intermittent controllers for each basin that reported to subpart W.
- Chemical injection pumps estimates are calculated with a basin-specific emission factor developed with GHGRP data for each basin that reported to subpart W.

For most sources in the processing, transmission and storage, and distribution segments, net emission factors have been developed for application in recent years of the time series, while the existing emission factors are applied in early time series years.

When a CO₂-specific emission factor is not available for a source, the CO₂ emission factors were derived from the corresponding source CH₄ emission factors using default gas composition data. CO₂ emission factors are estimated by multiplying the CH₄ emission factors by the ratio of the CO₂-to-CH₄ gas content. This approach is applied for certain sources in the natural gas production, gas processing (only for early time series years), transmission and storage, and distribution segments. The default gas composition data are specific to segment and are provided in Table 3.6-11. The default values were derived from GRI/EPA (1996), EIA (1994), and GTI (2001).

N₂O emission factors were calculated using GHGRP data. For each flaring emission source calculation methodology that uses GHGRP data, the source-specific methodology used to estimate CO₂ was applied to calculate N₂O emission factors.

1990-2022 Inventory updates to emission factors

Summary information for emission factors for sources with revisions in this year's *Inventory* is below. The details are presented in memoranda,⁶³ *Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks 1990-2022: Updates Under Consideration for Completion and Workover Emissions* (EPA 2023a) and *Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks 1990-2022: Updates Under Consideration for Underground Natural Gas Storage Well Emission Events* (EPA 2023b), as well as the "Recalculations Discussion" section of the main body text.

Activity Data

Table 3.6-7 shows the activity data for all sources in Natural Gas Systems, for all time series years. Additional detail on the basis for activity data used across the time series is provided in Table 3.6-8, and below.

For a few sources, recent direct activity data were not available. For these sources, either 2021 data were used as proxy for 2022 data or a set of industry activity data drivers was developed and was used to update activity data. Key drivers include statistics on gas production, number of wells, system throughput, miles of various kinds of pipe, and other statistics that characterize the changes in the U.S. natural gas system infrastructure and operations.

Methodology for well counts and events

EPA used datasets from Enverus (Enverus 2023), covering U.S. oil and natural gas wells to populate time series activity data for active gas wells, gas wells drilled, and gas well completions and workovers with hydraulic fracturing (for 1990 to 2010). EPA queried the Enverus datasets for relevant data on an individual well basis—including location, natural gas and liquids (i.e., oil and condensate) production by year, drill type (e.g., horizontal or vertical), and date of completion or first production. Non-associated gas wells were classified as any well that had non-zero gas production in a given year, and with a gas-to-oil ratio (GOR) of greater than 100 mcf/bbl in that year. Oil wells were classified as any well that had non-zero liquids production in a given year, and with a GOR of less than or equal to 100 mcf/bbl in that year. Gas wells with

⁶³ Stakeholder materials including EPA memoranda for the *Inventory* are available at <https://www.epa.gov/ghgemissions/natural-gas-and-petroleum-systems>.

hydraulic fracturing were assumed to be the subset of the non-associated gas wells that had fracking fluid data within Enverus or were horizontally drilled and/or located in an unconventional formation (i.e., shale, tight sands, or coalbed). Unconventional formations were identified based on well basin, reservoir, and field data reported in the Enverus datasets referenced against a formation type crosswalk developed by EIA (EIA 2012).

For 1990 through 2010, gas well completions with hydraulic fracturing were identified as a subset of the gas wells with hydraulic fracturing that had a date of completion or first production in the specified year. To calculate workovers for all time series years, EPA developed year- and basin-specific subpart W AFs for 2015 forward that represent the number of HF workovers per gas well; year 2015 subpart W AFs were applied to all prior years for each basin. For 2011 forward, EPA used GHGRP data for the total number of well completions. The GHGRP data represents a subset of the national completions, due to the reporting threshold, and therefore using this data without scaling it up to national level results in an underestimate. However, because EPA's GHGRP counts of completions were higher than national counts of completions (estimated using the Enverus datasets), EPA directly used the GHGRP data to estimate national activity for years 2011 forward.

EPA calculated the percentage of gas well completions and workovers with hydraulic fracturing in each of the four control categories using year- and basin-specific GHGRP data. EPA assumed no REC use from 1990 through 2000, used a REC use percentage calculated from basin-specific GHGRP data for 2011 forward, and then used linear interpolation between the 2000 and 2011 percentages for each basin. For flaring, EPA averaged the percent of completions and workovers that were flared in 2011 and 2012 GHGRP data. EPA used this average as a basin-specific percent flaring from 1990 through 2010 to recognize that some flaring has occurred over that time period. For 2011 forward, EPA used a flaring percentage calculated from GHGRP data. For basins without subpart W data available, EPA applied national average activity factors (unweighted average of all subpart W reported data).

Reductions Data

As described under "Emission Factors" above, some sources in Natural Gas Systems rely on CH₄ emission factors developed from the 1996 GRI/EPA study. Application of these emission factors across the time series represents potential emissions and does not take into account any use of technologies or practices that reduce emissions. To take into account use of such technologies for emission sources that use potential factors, data were collected on relevant voluntary and regulatory reductions.

Voluntary and regulatory emission reductions by segment, for all time series years, are included in Table 3.6-1. Reductions by emission source, for all time series years, are shown in Table 3.6-9.

Voluntary reductions

Voluntary reductions included in the *Inventory* were those reported to Gas STAR and Methane Challenge for activities such as replacing gas engines with electric compressor drivers and installing automated air-to-fuel ratio controls for engines.

The latest reported data for each program were paired with sources in the *Inventory* that use potential emissions approaches and incorporated into the estimates (e.g., gas engines). Reductions data are only included in the *Inventory* if the emission source uses "potential" emission factors, and for Natural Gas STAR reductions, short-term emission reductions are assigned to the reported year only, while long-term emission reductions are assigned to the reported year and every subsequent year in the time series. See Recalculations Discussion for more information.

Federal regulations

Regulatory actions reducing emissions in the current *Inventory* include the New Source Performance Standards (NSPS) and National Emission Standards for Hazardous Air Pollutants (NESHAP) regulations for dehydrator vents in the production segment.

The *Inventory* reflects the NSPS for oil and gas through the use of a net factor approach that captures shifts to lower emitting technologies required by the regulation. Examples include separating gas well completions and workovers with hydraulic fracturing into four categories and developing control technology-specific methane emission factors and year-specific activity data for each category; establishing control category-specific emission factors and associated year-specific activity data for condensate tanks; calculating year-specific activity data for pneumatic controller bleed categories; and estimating year-specific activity data for wet versus dry seal centrifugal compressors.

With regards to the oil and natural gas industry, the NESHAP regulation addresses HAPs from the oil and natural gas production segments and the natural gas transmission and storage segments of the industry. Though the regulation deals specifically with HAPs reductions, methane emissions are also incidentally reduced.

The NESHAP regulation requires that glycol dehydration unit vents that have HAP emissions and exceed a gas throughput threshold be connected to a closed loop emission control system that reduces emissions by 95 percent. The emissions reductions achieved as a result of NESHAP regulations for glycol dehydrators in the production segment were calculated using data provided in the Federal Register Background Information Document (BID) for this regulation. The BID provides the levels of control measures in place before the enactment of regulation. The emissions reductions were estimated by analyzing the portion of the industry without control measures already in place that would be impacted by the regulation.

NESHAP-driven reductions from storage tanks and from dehydrators in the processing segment are estimated with net emission methodologies that take into account controls implemented due to regulations.

Methane, Carbon Dioxide, and Nitrous Oxide Emissions by Emission Source for Each Year

Annual CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O emissions for each source were estimated by multiplying the activity data for each year by the corresponding emission factor. These annual emissions for each activity were then summed to estimate the total annual CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O emissions, respectively. As a final step for CH₄ emissions, any relevant reductions data from each segment is summed for each year and deducted from the total calculated emissions in that segment to estimate net CH₄ emissions for the *Inventory*. CH₄ potential emissions, reductions, and net emissions at a segment level are shown in Table 3.6-1. CO₂ emissions by segment and source are summarized in Table 3.6-10. N₂O emissions by segment and source are summarized in Table 3.6-14.

Refer to the 1990-2022 *Inventory* section at <https://www.epa.gov/ghgemissions/natural-gas-and-petroleum-systems> for the following data tables, in spreadsheet format:

- Table 3.6-1: CH₄ Emissions (kt) for Natural Gas Systems, by Segment and Source, for All Years. Emissions presented are net and include GasSTAR or Methane Challenge reductions.
- Table 3.6-2: Average CH₄ Emission Factors (kg/unit activity) for Natural Gas Systems Sources, for All Years
- Table 3.6-3: U.S. Production Sector CH₄ Content in Natural Gas by NEMS Region (General Sources)
- Table 3.6-4: U.S. Production Sector CH₄ Content in Natural Gas by NEMS Region (Gas Wells Without Hydraulic Fracturing)
- Table 3.6-5: U.S. Production Sector CH₄ Content in Natural Gas by NEMS Region (Gas Wells With Hydraulic Fracturing)
- Table 3.6-6: CH₄ Emission Factors for Natural Gas Systems, Data Sources/Methodology
- Table 3.6-7: Activity Data for Natural Gas Systems Sources, for All Years
- Table 3.6-8: Activity Data for Natural Gas Systems, Data Sources/Methodology
- Table 3.6-9: Voluntary and Regulatory CH₄ Reductions for Natural Gas Systems (kt)
- Table 3.6-10: CO₂ Emissions (kt) for Natural Gas Systems, by Segment and Source, for All Years
- Table 3.6-11: Default Gas Content by Segment, for All Years
- Table 3.6-12: Average CO₂ Emission Factors (kg/unit activity) for Natural Gas Systems Sources, for All Years
- Table 3.6-13: CO₂ Emission Factors for Natural Gas Systems, Data Sources/Methodology
- Table 3.6-14: N₂O Emissions (kt) for Natural Gas Systems, by Segment and Source, for All Years
- Table 3.6-15: Average N₂O Emission Factors (kg/unit activity) for Natural Gas Systems Sources, for All Years
- Table 3.6-16: N₂O Emission Factors for Natural Gas Systems, Data Sources/Methodology
- Table 3.6-17: Electronic Tables – References
- Table 3.6-18: Basin-Level CH₄ Emissions (kt) for Select Natural Gas Systems Onshore Production Sources
- Table 3.6-19: Basin-Level CO₂ Emissions (kt) for Select Natural Gas Systems Onshore Production Sources
- Table 3.6-20: Basin-Level Activity Factors for Select Natural Gas Systems Onshore Production Sources
- Table 3.6-21: Basin-Level Activity Data for Select Natural Gas Systems Onshore Production Sources

- Table 3.6-22: Average Basin-Level CH₄ Emission Factors (kg/unit activity) for Select Natural Gas Systems Onshore Production Sources, for All Years
- Table 3.6-23: Average Basin-Level CO₂ Emission Factors (kg/unit activity) for Select Natural Gas Systems Onshore Production Sources, for All Years
- Table 3.6-24: Basin-Level Activity Data for Select Natural Gas Systems Onshore Production Sources, Data Sources/Methodology
- Table 3.6-25: Basin-Level CH₄ Emission Factors for Select Natural Gas Systems Onshore Production Sources, Data Sources/Methodology
- Table 3.6-26: Basin-Level CO₂ Emission Factors for Select Natural Gas Systems Onshore Production Sources, Data Sources/Methodology
- Table 3.6-27: Basin-Level References

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3.7. Methodology for Estimating CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O Emissions from the Incineration of Waste

Emissions of CO₂ from the combustion of waste include CO₂ generated by the combustion of plastics, synthetic rubber and synthetic fibers in municipal solid waste (MSW), which, in the United States, tends to occur at waste-to-energy facilities or industrial facilities, and the combustion of tires (which are composed in part of synthetic rubber and C black) in a variety of other combustion facilities (e.g., cement kilns). Waste combustion also results in emissions of CH₄ and N₂O. The emission estimates are calculated for all MSW sources on a mass-basis based on the data available, with the emissions from the combustion of tires calculated separately. The methodology for calculating emissions from waste combustion sources is described in this Annex.

Municipal Solid Waste Combustion

To determine both CO₂ and non-CO₂ emissions from the combustion of waste, the tonnage of waste combusted and an estimated emissions factor are needed. Emission estimates from the combustion of tires are discussed separately. Data for total waste combusted, excluding tires, was derived from *BioCycle* (van Haaren et al. 2010), EPA Facts and Figures Report, Energy Recovery Council (ERC 2018), EPA’s Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program (GHGRP) (EPA 2022), and the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA 2019). Multiple sources were used to ensure a complete, quality dataset, as each source encompasses a different timeframe.

EPA’s Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program (GHGRP) collects data from facilities on methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions by fuel type under Subpart C. From these reported emissions for MSW fuel, EPA back-calculated the tonnage of waste combusted using GHGRP default emission factors for CH₄ and N₂O for 2011 through 2022. Reporters can report CO₂ emissions using a number of different tiers under the GHGRP. For some tiers, input fuel values could be determined, but not for all facilities. However, the methods for reporting CH₄ and N₂O emissions from MSW combustion under GHGRP generally rely on applying default emission factors to fuel input values. Therefore, back calculating fuel input based on the default CH₄ and N₂O emissions factors was determined to be the best method for consistently estimating fuel input values for all MSW fuel combustion across all facilities and over time. Where values for fuel input were directly available from MSW combustion through GHGRP it was determined to be consistent with the back calculated values.

EPA Facts and Figures Reports detail materials combusted with energy recovery in the municipal waste stream. This tonnage is estimated as a percentage of total MSW after recycling and composting. These data exclude major appliances, tires and lead-acid batteries, and food. Waste-to-energy data is reported to EIA and available at the plant level. Biogenic and non-biogenic combusted waste tonnage are both reported on a monthly and annual basis starting in 2006 (EIA 2019). The sum total is used in the following calculations. Similarly, ERC’s *2018 Directory of Waste and Energy Facilities* reports throughput data in tons of MSW for waste-to-energy facilities operating in the United States. Both *BioCycle* and ERC data include the tons of tires combusted in their raw data reporting. To determine total MSW combusted using these data, combusted tire tonnage is subtracted.

EPA determined the MSW combusted tonnages based on data availability and accuracy throughout the time series, and the two estimates were averaged together and converted to MSW tonnage.

- 1990-2006: MSW combustion tonnages are from BioCycle combustion data. Tire combustion data from the U.S. Tire Manufacturers Association (USTMA) are removed to arrive at MSW combusted without tires.
- 2006-2010: MSW combusted tonnages are an average of BioCycle (with USTMA tire data tonnage removed), U.S. EPA Facts and Figures, EIA, and Energy Recovery Council data (with USTMA tire data tonnage removed).
- 2011-2022: MSW combustion tonnages are from EPA’s GHGRP data.

Table A-102 provides the estimated tons of MSW combusted including and excluding tires.

Table A-102: Municipal Solid Waste Combusted (Short Tons)

Year	1990	2005	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Waste Combusted							
- excluding tires	33,344,839	26,486,414	29,162,364	28,174,311	27,586,271	27,867,446	26,338,130

Waste Combusted							
- including tires	33,766,239	28,631,054	30,853,949	29,821,141	29,106,686	29,261,446	27,732,130

Sources: *BioCycle*, EPA Facts and Figures, ERC, GHGRP, EIA, USTMA.

CO₂ Emissions from MSW Excluding Scrap Tires

Fossil CO₂ emission factors were calculated from EPA’s GHGRP data for non-biogenic sources. MSW tonnage using GHGRP data, excluding tires, was calculated following the method outlined previously. Dividing fossil CO₂ emissions from GHGRP FLIGHT data for facilities classified as MSW combustors by the estimated tonnage from those facilities yielded an annual CO₂ emission factor. Note the MSW tonnage calculated for facilities characterized as MSW combustors is smaller than the total MSW tonnage back calculated from emissions by fuel type data. This indicates MSW could be co-fired at facilities whose main purpose is not waste combustion alone. As this data was only available following 2011, the CO₂ emission factor was proxied using an average of the CO₂ emission factors from years 2011 through 2015.

Finally, CO₂ emissions were calculated by multiplying the annual tonnage estimates, excluding tires, by the calculated emissions factor. Calculated fossil CO₂ emission factors are shown in Table A-103.

Table A-103: Calculated Fossil CO₂ Content per Ton Waste Combusted (kg CO₂/Short Ton Combusted)

Year	1990	2005	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
CO ₂ Emission Factors	366	366	361	363	377	365	382

CO₂ from Combustion of Synthetic Rubber and Carbon Black in Tires

Calculating emissions from tire combustion requires two pieces of information: the amount of tires combusted and the C content of the tires. “2021 U.S. Scrap Tire Management Summary” (USTMA 2022) reports that 1,394 thousand of the 3,273 thousand tons of scrap tires generated in 2021 (approximately 43 percent of generation) were used for fuel purposes. 2022 values are proxied from 2021 data. Using USTMA’s estimates of average tire composition and weight, the mass of synthetic rubber and C black in scrap tires was determined:

- Synthetic rubber in tires was estimated to be 90 percent C by weight, based on the weighted average C contents of the major elastomers used in new tire consumption.⁶⁴ Table A-104 shows consumption and C content of elastomers used for tires and other products in 2002, the most recent year for which data are available.
- C black is 100 percent C (Aslett Rubber Inc. n.d.).

Multiplying the mass of scrap tires combusted by the total C content of the synthetic rubber, C black portions of scrap tires, and then by a 98 percent oxidation factor, yields CO₂ emissions, as shown in Table A-105. The disposal rate of rubber in tires (0.3 MMT C/year) is smaller than the consumption rate for tires based on summing the elastomers listed in Table A-104 (1.3 MMT/year); this is due to the fact that much of the rubber is lost through tire wear during the product’s lifetime and may also reflect the lag time between consumption and disposal of tires. Tire production and fuel use for 1990 through 2022 were taken from USTMA 2006; USTMA 2009; USTMA 2013; USTMA 2014; USTMA 2016; USTMA 2018; USTMA 2020; USTMA 2022. For years where data were not reported, data were linearly interpolated or, for the ends of time series, set equal to the closest year with reported data.

In 2009, USTMA changed the reporting of scrap tire data from millions of tires to thousands of short tons of scrap tire. As a result, the average weight and percent of the market of light duty and commercial scrap tires was used to convert the previous years from millions of tires to thousands of short tons (STMC 1990 through 1997; USTMA 2002 through USTMA 2006; USTMA 2009; USTMA 2013; USTMA 2014; USTMA 2016; USTMA 2018; USTMA 2020; USTMA 2022).

⁶⁴ The carbon content of tires (1,174 kt C) divided by the mass of rubber in tires (1,307 kt) equals 90 percent.

including tires was derived following the methods previously outlined. An emission factor of 0.20 kg CH₄/kt MSW was used based on the 2006 IPCC Guidelines and assuming that all MSW combustors in the United States use continuously-fed stoker technology (Bahor 2009; ERC 2009).

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3.8. Methodology for Estimating Emissions from International Bunker Fuels used by the U.S. Military

Bunker fuel emissions estimates for the Department of Defense (DoD) were developed using data generated by the Defense Logistics Agency Energy (DLA Energy) for aviation and naval fuels. DLA Energy prepared a special report based on data in the Fuels Automated System (FAS) for calendar year 2022 fuel sales in the Continental United States (CONUS).⁶⁵ The following steps outline the methodology used for estimating emissions from international bunker fuels used by the U.S. Military.

Step 1: Omit Extra-Territorial Fuel Deliveries

Beginning with the complete FAS data set for each year, the first step in quantifying DoD-related emissions from international bunker fuels was to identify data that would be representative of international bunker fuel consumption as defined by decisions of the UNFCCC (i.e., fuel sold to a vessel, aircraft, or installation within the United States or its territories and used in international maritime or aviation transport). Therefore, fuel data were categorized by the location of fuel delivery in order to identify and omit all international fuel transactions/deliveries (i.e., sales abroad).

Step 2: Allocate Jet Fuel between Aviation and Land-based Vehicles

As a result of DoD⁶⁶ and NATO⁶⁷ policies on implementing the Single Fuel For the Battlefield concept, DoD activities have been increasingly replacing diesel fuel with jet fuel in compression ignition and turbine engines of land-based equipment. Based on this concept and examination of all data describing jet fuel used in land-based vehicles, it was determined that a portion of jet fuel consumption should be attributed to ground vehicle use. Based on available Military Service data and expert judgment, a small fraction of jet fuel use (i.e., between 1.78 and 2.7 times the quantity of diesel fuel used, depending on the Service) was reallocated from the aviation subtotal to a new land-based jet fuel category for 1997 and subsequent years. As a result of this reallocation, the jet fuel use reported for aviation was reduced and the fuel use for land-based equipment increased. DoD's total fuel use did not change. DoD has been undergoing a transition from JP-8 jet fuel to commercial specification Jet A fuel with additives (JAA) for non-naval aviation and ground assets. To account for this transition jet fuel used for ground-based vehicles was reallocated from JP8 prior to 2014 and from JAA in 2014 and subsequent years. The transition was completed in 2016.

Table A-106 displays DoD's consumption of transportation fuels, summarized by fuel type, that remain at the completion of Step 1, and reflects the adjustments for jet fuel used in land-based equipment, as described above.

Step 3: Omit Land-Based Fuels

Navy and Air Force land-based fuels (i.e., fuel not used by ships or aircraft) were omitted for the purpose of calculating international bunker fuels. The remaining fuels, listed below, were considered potential DoD international bunker fuels.

- **Aviation:** jet fuels (JP8, JP5, JP4, JAA, JA1, and JAB).
- **Marine:** naval distillate fuel (F76), marine gas oil (MGO), and intermediate fuel oil (IFO).

Step 4: Omit Fuel Transactions Received by Military Services that are not considered to be International Bunker Fuels

Only Navy and Air Force were deemed to be users of military international bunker fuels after sorting the data by Military Service and applying the following assumptions regarding fuel use by Service.

⁶⁵ FAS contains data for 1995 through 2021, but the dataset was not complete for years prior to 1995. Using DLA aviation and marine fuel procurement data, fuel quantities from 1990 to 1994 were estimated based on a back-calculation of the 1995 data in the legacy database, the Defense Fuels Automated Management System (DFAMS). The back-calculation was refined in 1999 to better account for the jet fuel conversion from JP4 to JP8 that occurred within DoD between 1992 and 1995.

⁶⁶ DoD Directive 4140.25-M-V1, Fuel Standardization and Cataloging, 2013; DoD Instruction 4140.25, DoD Management Policy for Energy Commodities and Related Services, 2015.

⁶⁷ NATO Standard Agreement NATO STANAG 4362, Fuels for Future Ground Equipment Using Compression Ignition or Turbine Engines, 2012.

- Only fuel delivered to a ship, aircraft, or installation in the United States was considered a potential international bunker fuel. Fuel consumed in international aviation or marine transport was included in the bunker fuel estimate of the country where the ship or aircraft was fueled. Fuel consumed entirely within a country's borders was not considered a bunker fuel.
- Based on previous discussions with the Army staff, only an extremely small percentage of Army aviation emissions, and none of Army watercraft emissions, qualified as bunker fuel emissions. The magnitude of these emissions was judged to be insignificant when compared to Air Force and Navy emissions. Based on this research, Army bunker fuel emissions were assumed to be zero.
- Marine Corps aircraft operating while embarked consumed fuel that was reported as delivered to the Navy. Bunker fuel emissions from embarked Marine Corps aircraft were reported in the Navy bunker fuel estimates. Bunker fuel emissions from other Marine Corps operations and training were assumed to be zero.
- Bunker fuel emissions from other DoD and non-DoD activities (i.e., other federal agencies) that purchased fuel from DLA Energy were assumed to be zero.

Step 5: Determine Bunker Fuel Percentages

It was necessary to determine what percent of the aviation and marine fuels were used as international bunker fuels. Military aviation bunkers include international operations (i.e., sorties that originate in the United States and end in a foreign country), operations conducted from naval vessels at sea, and operations conducted from U.S. installations principally over international water in direct support of military operations at sea (e.g., anti-submarine warfare flights). Methods for quantifying aviation and marine bunker fuel percentages are described below.

- **Aviation:** The Air Force Aviation bunker fuel percentage was determined to be 13.2 percent. A bunker fuel weighted average was calculated based on flying hours by major command. International flights were weighted by an adjustment factor to reflect the fact that they typically last longer than domestic flights. In addition, a fuel use correction factor was used to account for the fact that transport aircraft burn more fuel per hour of flight than most tactical aircraft. This percentage was multiplied by total annual Air Force aviation fuel delivered for U.S. activities, producing an estimate for international bunker fuel consumed by the Air Force.

The Naval Aviation bunker fuel percentage was calculated to be 40.4 percent by using flying hour data from Chief of Naval Operations Flying Hour Projection System Budget for fiscal year 1998 and estimates of bunker fuel percent of flights provided by the fleet. This Naval Aviation bunker fuel percentage was then multiplied by total annual Navy aviation fuel delivered for U.S. activities, yielding total Navy aviation bunker fuel consumed.
- **Marine:** For marine bunkers, fuels consumed while ships were underway were assumed to be bunker fuels. The Navy maritime bunker fuel percentage was determined to be 79 percent because the Navy reported that 79 percent of vessel operations were underway, while the remaining 21 percent of operations occurred in port (i.e., pierside) in the year 2000.⁶⁸

Table A-107 and Table A-108 display DoD bunker fuel use totals for the Navy and Air Force.

Step 6: Calculate Emissions from International Bunker Fuels

Bunker fuel totals were multiplied by appropriate emission factors to determine greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. CO₂ emissions from Aviation Bunkers and distillate Marine Bunkers are the total of military aviation and marine bunker fuels, respectively.

The rows labeled "U.S. Military" and "U.S. Military Naval Fuels" in the tables in the International Bunker Fuels section of the Energy chapter were based on the totals provided in Table A-107 and Table A-108, below. CO₂ emissions from aviation bunkers and distillate marine bunkers are presented in Table A-112, and are based on emissions from fuels tallied in Table A-107 and Table A-108.

⁶⁸ Note that 79 percent is used because it is based on Navy data, but the percentage of time underway may vary from year-to-year depending on vessel operations. For example, for years prior to 2000, the bunker fuel percentage was 87 percent.

3.9. Methodology and QA/QC and Verification Details for Estimating HFC, PFC, and CO₂ Emissions from Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances

Methodology for Estimating HFC, PFC, and CO₂ Emissions from Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances

Emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and CO₂ from the substitution of ozone depleting substances (ODS) are developed using a country-specific modeling approach. The Vintaging Model⁶⁹ was developed as a tool for estimating the annual chemical emissions from industrial sectors that have historically used ODS in their products. Under the terms of the Montreal Protocol and the United States Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990, the domestic U.S. consumption of ODS—chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), halons, carbon tetrachloride, methyl chloroform, and hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs)—has been drastically reduced, forcing these industrial sectors to transition to more ozone friendly chemicals. As these industries have moved toward ODS alternatives such as hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), perfluorocarbons (PFCs), and carbon dioxide (CO₂), the Vintaging Model has evolved into a tool for estimating the rise in consumption and emissions of these alternatives, and the decline of ODS consumption and emissions.

The Vintaging Model estimates emissions from five ODS substitute, HFC-emitting end-use sectors: refrigeration and air-conditioning, foams, aerosols, solvents, and fire-extinguishing. Within these sectors, there are 80 independently modeled end-uses. The model requires information on the market growth for each of the end-uses, a history of the market transition from ODS to alternatives, and the characteristics of each end-use such as market size or charge sizes and loss rates. As ODS are phased out, a percentage of the market share originally filled by the ODS is allocated to each of its substitutes.

The model, named for its method of tracking the emissions of annual “vintages” of new equipment that enter into service, is a “bottom-up” model. It models the consumption of chemicals based on estimates of the quantity of equipment or products sold, serviced, and retired each year, and the amount of the chemical required to manufacture and/or maintain the equipment. The Vintaging Model makes use of this market information to build an inventory of the in-use stocks of the equipment and ODS and ODS substitute in each of the end-uses. The simulation is considered to be a “business-as-usual” baseline case and does not incorporate measures to reduce or eliminate the emissions of these gases other than those regulated by U.S. law or otherwise common in the industry. Emissions are estimated by applying annual leak rates, service emission rates, and disposal emission rates to each population of equipment. By aggregating the emission and consumption output from the different end-uses, the model produces estimates of total annual use and emissions of each chemical.

The Vintaging Model synthesizes data from a variety of sources, including data from the ODS Tracking System maintained by the Stratospheric Protection Division, the Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program maintained by the Climate Change Division, and information from submissions to EPA under the Significant New Alternatives Policy (SNAP) program. Published sources include documents prepared by the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) Technical Options Committees, reports from the Alternative Fluorocarbons Environmental Acceptability Study (AFEAS), conference proceedings from the International Conferences on Ozone Protection Technologies and Earth Technologies Forums, and numerous technical reports and corporate announcements. EPA also coordinates extensively with numerous trade associations and individual companies. For example, the Alliance for Responsible Atmospheric Policy; the Air-Conditioning, Heating and Refrigeration Institute; the Association of Home Appliance Manufacturers; the American Automobile Manufacturers Association; and many of their member companies have provided valuable information over the years.

In some instances, the unpublished information that the EPA uses in the model is classified as Confidential Business Information (CBI). The annual emissions inventories of chemicals are aggregated in such a way that CBI cannot be inferred. Full public disclosure of the inputs to the Vintaging Model would jeopardize the security of the CBI that has been entrusted to the EPA. In addition, emissions of certain gases (including HFC-152a, HFC-227ea, HFC-245fa, HFC 365mfc, HFC-43-10mee, HCFO-1233zd(E), HFO-1234yf, HFO-1234ze(E), HFO-1336mzz(Z), C₄F₁₀, and PFC/PFPEs, the latter being a proxy for a diverse collection of PFCs and perfluoropolyethers (PFPEs) employed for solvent applications) are marked as confidential because they are produced or imported by a small number of chemical providers and in such

⁶⁹ Vintaging Model version VM IO file_v5.1_12.22.2023 was used for all *Inventory* estimates.

small quantities or for such discrete applications that reporting national data would effectively be reporting the chemical provider's output, which is considered confidential business information. These gases are modeled individually in the Vintaging Model but are aggregated and reported as two unspecified mixes of ODS substitutes.

The Vintaging Model is regularly updated to incorporate up-to-date market information, including equipment stock estimates, leak rates, and sector transitions. In addition, comparisons against published emission and consumption sources are performed when available. Independent peer reviews of the Vintaging Model are periodically performed, including one conducted in 2017 (EPA 2018), to confirm Vintaging Model estimates and identify updates.

The following sections discuss the emission equations used in the Vintaging Model for each broad end-use category. These equations are applied separately for each chemical used within each of the different end-uses. In the majority of these end-uses, more than one ODS substitute chemical is used.

In general, the modeled emissions are a function of the amount of chemical consumed in each end-use market. Estimates of the consumption of ODS alternatives can be inferred by determining the transition path of each regulated ODS used in the early 1990s. Using data gleaned from a variety of sources, assessments are made regarding which alternatives have been used, and what fraction of the ODS market in each end-use has been captured by a given alternative. By combining this with estimates of the total end-use market growth, a consumption value can be estimated for each chemical used within each end-use.

Methodology

The Vintaging Model estimates the use and emissions of ODS alternatives by taking the following steps:

1. *Gather historical data.* The Vintaging Model is populated with information on each end-use, taken from published sources and industry experts.
2. *Simulate the implementation of new, non-ODS technologies.* The Vintaging Model uses detailed characterizations of the existing uses of the ODS, as well as data on how the substitutes are replacing the ODS, to simulate the implementation of new technologies that enter the market in compliance with ODS phase-out policies. As part of this simulation, the ODS substitutes are introduced in each of the end-uses over time as seen historically and as needed to comply with the ODS phase-out and other regulations.
3. *Estimate emissions of the ODS substitutes.* The chemical use is estimated from the amount of substitutes that are required each year for the manufacture, installation, use, or servicing of products. The emissions are estimated from the emission profile for each vintage of equipment or product in each end-use. By aggregating the emissions from each vintage, a time profile of emissions from each end-use is developed.

Each set of end-uses is discussed in more detail in the following sections.

Refrigeration and Air-Conditioning

For refrigeration and air conditioning products, emission calculations are split into three categories: emissions at first-fill, which arise during manufacture or installation, emissions during equipment lifetime, which arise from annual leakage and service losses, and disposal emissions, which occur at the time of discard. This methodology is consistent to the 2006 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories, where the total refrigerant emissions from refrigeration and air conditioning equipment is the sum of first-fill emissions, annual operational and servicing emissions, and disposal emissions under the Tier 2a emission factor approach (IPCC 2006). Three separate steps are required to calculate the lifetime emissions from installation, leakage and service, and the emissions resulting from disposal of the equipment. The model assumes that equipment is serviced annually so that the amount equivalent to average annual emissions for each product (and hence for the total of what was added to the bank in a previous year in equipment that has not yet reached end-of-life) is replaced/applied to the starting charge size (or chemical bank). For any given year, these first-fill emissions (for new equipment), lifetime emissions (for existing equipment), and disposal emissions (from discarded equipment) are summed to calculate the total emissions from the refrigeration and air-conditioning sector. As new technologies replace older ones, it is generally assumed that there are improvements in their leak, service, and disposal emission rates, due to improvement in technology and equipment/component design, such as the use of micro-channel heat exchangers, reduction in piping and joints, more advanced controls and leak detection to identify leaks faster, and other optimizations.

At disposal, refrigerant that is recovered from discarded equipment is assumed to be reused to the extent necessary in the following calendar year. The Vintaging Model does not make any explicit assumption whether recovered refrigerant is reused as-is (allowed under U.S. regulations if the refrigerant is reused in the same owner's equipment), recycled (commonly practiced even when re-used directly), or reclaimed (brought to new refrigerant purity standards and available to be sold on the open market).

Step 1: Calculate first-fill emissions

The first-fill emission equation assumes that a certain percentage of the chemical charge will be emitted to the atmosphere when the equipment is charged with refrigerant during manufacture or installation. First-fill emissions are considered for all refrigerants in all refrigeration and air conditioning equipment that are charged with refrigerant within the United States, including those which are produced for export, and excluding those that are imported pre-charged. First-fill emissions are thus a function of the quantity of chemical contained in new equipment and the proportion of equipment that are filled with refrigerant in the United States:

Equation A-8: Calculation of Emissions from Refrigeration and Air-conditioning Equipment First-fill

$$E_{fj} = Q_{c_j} \times I_f \times A_j$$

where:

- E_{fj} = Emissions from Equipment First-fill. Emissions in year j from filling new equipment.
- Q_c = Quantity of Chemical in New Equipment. Total amount of a specific chemical used to charge new equipment in year j , by weight.
- I_f = First-fill Leak Rate. Average leak rate during installation or manufacture of new equipment (expressed as a percentage of total chemical charge).
- A = Applicability of First-fill Leak Rate. Percentage of new equipment that are filled with refrigerant in the United States in year j .
- j = Year of emission.

Step 2: Calculate lifetime emissions

Emissions from any piece of equipment include both the amount of chemical leaked during equipment operation and the amount emitted during service. Emissions from leakage and servicing can be expressed as follows:

Equation A-9: Calculation of Emissions from Refrigeration and Air-conditioning Equipment Serviced

$$E_{s_j} = (I_a + I_s) \times \sum Q_{c_{j+i}} \quad \text{for } i = 1 \rightarrow k$$

where:

- E_s = Emissions from Equipment Serviced. Emissions in year j from normal leakage and servicing (including recharging) of equipment.
- I_a = Annual Leak Rate. Average annual leak rate during normal equipment operation (expressed as a percentage of total chemical charge).
- I_s = Service Leak Rate. Average leakage during equipment servicing (expressed as a percentage of total chemical charge).
- Q_c = Quantity of Chemical in New Equipment. Total amount of a specific chemical used to charge new equipment in a given year by weight.
- i = Counter, runs from 1 to lifetime (k).
- j = Year of emission.
- k = Lifetime. The average lifetime of the equipment.

Step 3: Calculate disposal emissions

The disposal emission equations assume that a certain percentage of the chemical charge will be emitted to the atmosphere when that vintage is discarded, while remaining refrigerant is assumed to be recovered and reused. Disposal emissions are thus a function of the quantity of chemical contained in the retiring equipment fleet and the proportion of chemical released at disposal:

Equation A-10: Calculation of Emissions from Refrigeration and Air-conditioning Equipment Disposed

$$Ed_j = Qc_{j-k+1} \times [1 - (rm \times rc)]$$

where:

- Ed = Emissions from Equipment Disposed. Emissions in year j from the disposal of equipment.
- Qc = Quantity of Chemical in New Equipment. Total amount of a specific chemical used to charge new equipment in year $j-k+1$, by weight.
- rm = Chemical Remaining. Amount of chemical remaining in equipment at the time of disposal (expressed as a percentage of total chemical charge).
- rc = Chemical Recovery Rate. Amount of chemical that is recovered just prior to disposal (expressed as a percentage of chemical remaining at disposal (rm)).
- j = Year of emission.
- k = Lifetime. The average lifetime of the equipment.

Step 4: Calculate total emissions

Finally, first-fill, lifetime, and disposal emissions are summed to provide an estimate of total emissions.

Equation A-11: Calculation of Total Emissions from Refrigeration and Air-conditioning Equipment

$$E_j = Ef_j + Es_j + Ed_j$$

where:

- E = Total Emissions. Emissions from refrigeration and air conditioning equipment in year j .
- Ef = Emissions from first Equipment Fill. Emissions in year j from filling new equipment.
- Es = Emissions from Equipment Serviced. Emissions in year j from leakage and servicing (including recharging) of equipment.
- Ed = Emissions from Equipment Disposed. Emissions in year j from the disposal of equipment.
- j = Year of emission.

Assumptions

The assumptions used by the Vintaging Model to trace the transition of each type of equipment away from ODS are presented in Table A-113, below, including the average equipment lifetimes, charge sizes, one-time emissions rates (for first-fill and disposal), and annual emission rates (for servicing and leaks) for each refrigeration and air-conditioning end-use modeled by the Vintaging Model. As new technologies replace older ones, it is generally assumed that there are improvements in their leak, service, and disposal emission rates. Additionally, the market for each equipment type is assumed to grow independently, according to annual growth rates, which are applied to new equipment within each end-use.

- ^c Disposal emissions rates are developed based on consideration of the original charge size, the percentage of refrigerant likely to remain in equipment at the time of disposal, and recovery practices assumed to vary by gas type. Because equipment lifetime emissions are annualized, equipment is assumed to reach the end of its lifetime with a full charge. Therefore, recovery rate is equal to 100 percent - Disposal Loss Rate (%).
- ^d Growth Rate is the average annual growth rate for individual market sectors from the base year of the Vintaging Model to 2030.
- ^e Charge sizes for cold storage are modeled on a kilogram per cubic foot of refrigerated space basis.
- ^f DX refers to direct expansion systems where the compressors are mounted together in a rack and share suction and discharge refrigeration lines that run throughout the store, feeding refrigerant to the display cases in the sales area.
- ^g DR refers to distributed refrigeration systems that consist of multiple smaller units that are located close to the display cases that they serve such as on the roof above the cases, behind a nearby wall, or on top of or next to the case in the sales area.
- ^h SLS refers to secondary loop systems wherein a secondary fluid such as glycol or carbon dioxide is cooled by the primary refrigerant in the machine room and then pumped throughout the store to remove heat from the display equipment.
- ⁱ Vintage rail transport HFC systems are assumed to be retrofitted from existing CFC-12 systems.
- ^j Vintage rail transport HFC systems are retrofitted from existing systems and therefore have no HFC first-fill emission rate.

Aerosols

ODSs, HFCs, and many other chemicals are used as propellant aerosols. Pressurized within a container, a nozzle releases the chemical, which allows the product within the can to also be released. Three types of aerosol products are modeled: metered dose inhalers (MDI), consumer aerosols, and technical aerosols. In the United States, the use of CFCs in consumer aerosols was banned in 1978, and many products transitioned to hydrocarbons or “not-in-kind” technologies, such as solid deodorants and finger-pump hair sprays. However, MDIs and certain technical aerosols continued to use CFCs and HCFCs as propellants because their use was deemed essential. Essential use exemptions granted to the United States under the Montreal Protocol for CFC use in MDIs were limited to the treatment of asthma and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. Under the Clean Air Act, the use of CFCs and HCFCs was also exempted in technical aerosols for several applications, including industrial cleaners, pesticides, mold release agents, certain dusters, and lubricants.

All HFCs used in aerosols are assumed to be emitted in the year of manufacture. Since there is currently no aerosol recycling, it is assumed that all of the annual production of aerosol propellants is released to the atmosphere. The following equation describes the emissions from the aerosols sector.

Equation A-12: Calculation of Emissions from Aerosols

$$E_j = Qc_j$$

where:

E	=	Emissions. Total emissions of a specific chemical in year j from use in aerosol products, by weight.
Qc	=	Quantity of Chemical. Total quantity of a specific chemical contained in aerosol products sold in year j , by weight.
j	=	Year of emission.

Transition Assumptions

Transition assumptions and growth rates for those items that use ODSs or HFCs as propellants, including vital medical devices and specialty consumer products, are presented in Table A-114.

Step 1: Calculate manufacturing emissions (open-cell and closed-cell foams)

Manufacturing emissions occur in the year of foam manufacture and are calculated as presented in the following equation. Manufacturing emissions are considered for all foam equipment that are filled with foam within the United States, including those which are produced for export, and excluding those that are imported pre-filled.

Equation A-15: Calculation of Emissions from Foam Blowing Manufacturing

$$Em_j = lm \times Qc_j$$

where:

- Em_j = Emissions from manufacturing. Total emissions of a specific chemical in year j due to manufacturing losses, by weight.
- lm = Loss Rate. Percent of original blowing agent emitted during foam manufacture. For open-cell foams, lm is 100%.
- Qc = Quantity of Chemical. Total amount of a specific chemical used to manufacture closed-cell foams in a given year.
- j = Year of emission.

Step 2: Calculate lifetime emissions (closed-cell foams)

Lifetime emissions occur annually from closed-cell foams throughout the lifetime of the foam, as calculated as presented in the following equation.

Equation A-16: Calculation of Emissions from Foam Blowing Lifetime Losses (Closed-cell Foams)

$$Eu_j = lu \times \sum Qc_{j+i+1} \text{ for } i=1 \rightarrow k$$

where:

- Eu_j = Emissions from Lifetime Losses. Total emissions of a specific chemical in year j due to lifetime losses during use, by weight.
- lu = Leak Rate. Percent of original blowing agent emitted each year during lifetime use.
- Qc = Quantity of Chemical. Total amount of a specific chemical used to manufacture closed-cell foams in a given year.
- i = Counter, runs from 1 to lifetime (k).
- j = Year of emission.
- k = Lifetime. The average lifetime of foam product.

Step 3: Calculate disposal emissions (closed-cell foams)

Disposal emissions occur in the year the foam is disposed, and are calculated as presented in the following equation.

Equation A-17: Calculation of Emissions from Foam Blowing Disposal (Closed-cell Foams)

$$Ed_j = ld \times Qc_{j-k}$$

where:

- Ed_j = Emissions from disposal. Total emissions of a specific chemical in year j at disposal, by weight.
- ld = Loss Rate. Percent of original blowing agent emitted at disposal.
- Qc = Quantity of Chemical. Total amount of a specific chemical used to manufacture closed-cell foams in a given year.

- j = Year of emission.
- k = Lifetime. The average lifetime of foam product.

Step 4: Calculate post-disposal emissions (closed-cell foams)

Post-disposal emissions occur in the years after the foam is disposed; for example, emissions might occur while the disposed foam is in a landfill. Currently, five foam types are assumed to have post-disposal emissions.

Equation A-18: Calculation of Emissions from Foam Blowing Post-disposal (Closed-cell Foams)

$$Ep_j = lp \times \sum_{m=k \rightarrow k+26} Qc_{j-m}$$

where:

- Ep_j = Emissions from post disposal. Total post-disposal emissions of a specific chemical in year j , by weight.
- lp = Leak Rate. Percent of original blowing agent emitted post disposal.
- Qc = Quantity of Chemical. Total amount of a specific chemical used to manufacture closed-cell foams in a given year.
- k = Lifetime. The average lifetime of foam product.
- m = Counter. Runs from lifetime (k) to ($k+26$).
- j = Year of emission.

Step 5: Calculate total emissions (open-cell and closed-cell foams)

To calculate total emissions from foams in any given year, emissions from all foam stages must be summed, as presented in the following equation.

Equation A-19: Calculation of Total Emissions from Foam Blowing (Open-cell and Closed-cell Foams)

$$E_j = Em_j + Eu_j + Ed_j + Ep_j$$

where:

- E_j = Total Emissions. Total emissions of a specific chemical in year j , by weight.
- Em_j = Emissions from manufacturing. Total emissions of a specific chemical in year j due to manufacturing losses, by weight.
- Eu_j = Emissions from Lifetime Losses. Total emissions of a specific chemical in year j due to lifetime losses during use, by weight.
- Ed_j = Emissions from disposal. Total emissions of a specific chemical in year j at disposal, by weight.
- Ep_j = Emissions from post disposal. Total post-disposal emissions of a specific chemical in year j , by weight.

Assumptions

The Vintaging Model contains thirteen foam types, whose transition assumptions away from ODS and growth rates are presented in Table A-117. The emission profiles of these thirteen foam types are shown in Table A-118.

Table A-117: Foam Blowing Market Transition Assumptions

Initial Market Segment	Primary Substitute				Secondary Substitute				Tertiary Substitute				Growth Rate ^b							
	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment ^a	Maximum Market Penetration	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment ^a	Maximum Market Penetration	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment ^a	Maximum Market Penetration								
Vending Machine Foam																				
CFC-11	HCFC-141b	1993	1995	100%	HFC-245fa	2001	2004	100%	Non-ODP/GWP	2004	2006	45%	-0.03%							
									Non-ODP/GWP	2007	2009	5%								
									Non-ODP/GWP	2007	2009	25%								
									Non-ODP/GWP	2010	2010	10%								
									Non-ODP/GWP	2017	2017	2%								
									Non-ODP/GWP	2017	2017	8%								
									Non-ODP/GWP	2017	2017	8%								
Stand-alone Equipment Foam																				
CFC-11	HCFC-141b	1990	1995	40%	HFC-245fa	2003	2005	80%	HCFO-1233zd(E)	2019	2020	25%	2.2%							
					HFC-134a	2003	2005	40%	None											
					Non-ODP/GWP	2003	2005	40%	None											
					HFC-134a	2004	2008	46%	Non-ODP/GWP											
	HCFC-22	1990	1995	56%	HFC-134a	2004	2008	46%	Non-ODP/GWP	2010	2018	32%								
					Non-ODP/GWP	2004	2008	54%	HCFO-1233zd(E)	2019	2020	36%								
Ice Machine Foam																				
CFC-11	HCFC-141b	1989	1996	40%	CO ₂	2002	2003	69%	None	2017	2020	47%	2.1%							
					HFC-134a	2002	2003	31%	CO ₂					2017	2020	47%				
					HCFC-142b	1989	1996	8%	CO ₂					2002	2003	69%	None	2017	2020	47%
									HFC-134a					2002	2003	31%	CO ₂	2017	2020	47%

Initial Market Segment	Primary Substitute				Secondary Substitute				Tertiary Substitute				Growth Rate ^b
	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment ^a	Maximum Market Penetration	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment ^a	Maximum Market Penetration	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment ^a	Maximum Market Penetration	
	HCFC-22	1989	1996	52%	CO ₂ HFC-134a	2002 2002	2003 2003	69% 31%	HCFO-1233zd(E) None CO ₂ HCFO-1233zd(E)	2017 2017 2017	2020 2020 2020	20% 47% 20%	
Refrigerated Food Processing and Dispensing Equipment Foam													
CFC-11	HCFC-22	1989	1997	100%	HFC-134a Non-ODP/GWP	2004 2004	2008 2008	75% 20% 25%	Non-ODP/GWP HCFO-1233zd(E) HFO-1234ze None	2015 2020 2020	2021 2021 2021	30% 3% 3%	2.1%
Small Walk-in Cooler Foam													
CFC-11	HCFC-141b HCFC-22	1990 1990	1995 1995	50% 50%	HFC-245fa HFC-134a HFC-245fa HFC-134a	2001 2000 2009 2009	2003 2001 2010 2010	100% 10% 50% 40%	None None HCFO-1233zd(E) None	2020	2020	20%	1.6%
Large Walk-in Cooler Foam													
CFC-11	HCFC-141b HCFC-22	1990 1990	1995 1995	50% 50%	HFC-245fa HFC-134a HFC-245fa HFC-134a	2001 2000 2009 2009	2003 2001 2010 2010	100% 10% 50% 40%	None None HCFO-1233zd(E) None	2020	2020	20%	1.5%
Display Case Foam													
CFC-11	HCFC-141b HCFC-142b	1991 1991	1992 1992	50% 50%	HFC-245fa HFC-245fa	2003 2004	2003 2004	100% 100%	None None				1.7%
CFC-12	HCFC-22	1991	1993	100%	HFC-134a	2003	2007	100%	HCFO-1233zd(E)	2015	2020	60%	
Road Transport Foam													
CFC-11	HCFC-141b	1989	1996	19%	HCFC-22	1999	2001	37%	HFC-245fa	2005	2007	100%	5.5%

Initial Market Segment	Primary Substitute				Secondary Substitute				Tertiary Substitute				Growth Rate ^b	
	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment ^a	Maximum Market Penetration	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment ^a	Maximum Market Penetration	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment ^a	Maximum Market Penetration		
	HCFC-22	1989	1996	81%	CO ₂ Non-ODP/GWP HFC-134a HFC-245fa	1999 1999 2005 2005	2001 2001 2007 2007	11% 53% 37% 63%	None None None HCFO-1233zd(E)				76%	
Intermodal Container Foam														
CFC-11	HCFC-141b	1989	1996	19%	HCFC-22 CO ₂ Non-ODP/GWP	1999 1999 1999	2001 2001 2001	37% 11% 53%	HFC-245fa None None	2005	2007	100%	7.3%	
	HCFC-22	1989	1996	81%	HFC-134a HFC-245fa	2005 2005	2007 2007	37% 63%	None HCFO-1233zd(E)	2020	2020	76%		
Flexible PU Foam: Integral Skin Foam														
HCFC-141b ^c	HFC-134a	1996	2000	50%	HFC-245fa	2003	2010	96%	HCFO-1233zd(E) Non-ODP/GWP HFO-1336mzz(Z)	2017 2017 2017	2017 2017 2017	83% ^e 6% 10%	2.0%	
	CO ₂	1996	2000	50%	Non-ODP/GWP None	2003	2010	4%	None					
Flexible PU Foam: Slabstock Foam, Moulded Foam														
CFC-11	Non-ODP/GWP	1992	1992	100%	None								2.0%	
Phenolic Foam														
CFC-11	HCFC-141b	1989	1990	100%	Non-ODP/GWP	1992	1992	100%	None				2.0%	
Polyolefin Foam														

Initial Market Segment	Primary Substitute				Secondary Substitute				Tertiary Substitute				Growth Rate ^b
	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment ^a	Maximum Market Penetration	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment ^a	Maximum Market Penetration	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment ^a	Maximum Market Penetration	
CFC-114	HFC-152a	1989	1993	10%	Non-ODP/GWP	2005	2010	100%	None				2.0%
	HCFC-142b	1989	1993	90%		1994	1996	100%					
PU and PIR Rigid: Boardstock													
CFC-11	HCFC-141b	1993	1996	100%	Non-ODP/GWP	2000	2003	100%	None				4.8%
PU Rigid: Domestic Refrigerator and Freezer Insulation													
CFC-11	HCFC-141b	1993	1995	100%	HFC-134a	1996	2001	7%	Non-ODP/GWP	2002	2003	100%	0.8%
					HFC-245fa	2001	2003	50%	Non-ODP/GWP	2015	2020	50%	
					HCFO-1233zd(E)	2015	2020	50%					
					HFC-245fa	2006	2009	10%	Non-ODP/GWP	2015	2020	50%	
					HCFO-1233zd(E)	2015	2020	50%					
					Non-ODP/GWP	2002	2005	10%	None				
					Non-ODP/GWP	2006	2009	3%	None				
Non-ODP/GWP	2009	2014	20%	None									
PU Rigid: One Component Foam													
CFC-12	HCFC-142b/22 Blend	1989	1996	70%	Non-ODP/GWP	2009	2010	80%	None				4.0%
					HFC-134a	2009	2010	10%					
	HCFC-22	1989	1996	30%	Non-ODP/GWP	2009	2010	80%	None				

Initial Market Segment	Primary Substitute				Secondary Substitute				Tertiary Substitute				Growth Rate ^b
	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment ^a	Maximum Market Penetration	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment ^a	Maximum Market Penetration	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment ^a	Maximum Market Penetration	
					HFC-134a	2009	2010	10%	HFO-1234ze(E)	2018	2020	100%	
					HFC-152a	2009	2010	10%	None				
PU Rigid: Other: Slabstock Foam													
CFC-11	HCFC-141b	1989	1996	100%	CO ₂	1999	2003	45%	None				2.0%
					Non-ODP/GWP	2001	2003	45%	None				
					HCFC-22	2003	2003	10%	Non-ODP/GWP	2009	2010	100%	
PU Rigid: Sandwich Panels: Continuous and Discontinuous													
HCFC-141b ^d	HCFC-22/Water Blend	2001	2003	20%	HFC-245fa/CO ₂ Blend	2009	2010	50%	HCFO-1233zd(E)	2015	2020	100%	6.0%
					Non-ODP/GWP	2009	2010	50%	None				
	HFC-245fa/CO ₂ Blend	2002	2004	20%	HCFO-1233zd(E)	2015	2020	100%	None				
	Non-ODP/GWP	2001	2004	40%	None								
	HFC-134a	2002	2004	20%	Non-ODP/GWP	2015	2020	100%	None				
HCFC-22	HFC-245fa/CO ₂ Blend	2009	2010	40%	HCFO-1233zd(E)	2015	2020	100%	None				
	Non-ODP/GWP	2009	2010	20%	None								
	CO ₂	2009	2010	20%	None								
	HFC-134a	2009	2010	20%	Non-ODP/GWP	2015	2020	100%	None				
PU Rigid: High Pressure Two-Component Spray Foam													
CFC-11	HCFC-141b	1989	1996	100%	HFC-245fa	2002	2003	C	HFO-1336mzz(Z)	2016	2020	100%	0.8%

Initial Market Segment	Primary Substitute				Secondary Substitute				Tertiary Substitute				Growth Rate ^b
	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment ^a	Maximum Market Penetration	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment ^a	Maximum Market Penetration	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment ^a	Maximum Market Penetration	
					HFC-245fa/CO ₂ Blend	2002	2003	C	HFO-1336mzz(Z)/CO ₂ Blend	2016	2020	100%	
					HFC-227ea/HF C-365mfc Blend	2002	2003	C	HCFO-1233zd(E)	2016	2020	100%	
PU Rigid: Low Pressure Two-Component Spray Foam													
CFC-12	HCFC-22	1989	1996	100%	HFC-245fa	2002	2003	15%	HCFO-1233zd(E)	2017	2021	100%	0.8%
					HFC-134a	2002	2003	85%	HFO-1234ze	2017	2021	100%	
XPS: Boardstock Foam													
CFC-12	HCFC-142b/22 Blend	1989	1994	10%	HFC-134a	2009	2010	70%	Non-ODP/GWP	2021	2021	100%	2.5%
					HFC-152a	2009	2010	10%	None				
					CO ₂	2009	2010	10%	None				
					Non-ODP/GWP	2009	2010	10%	None				
	HCFC-142b	1989	1994	90%	HFC-134a	2009	2010	70%	Non-ODP/GWP	2021	2021	100%	
					HFC-152a	2009	2010	10%	None				
					CO ₂	2009	2010	10%	None				
					Non-ODP/GWP	2009	2010	10%	None				
XPS: Sheet Foam													
CFC-12	CO ₂	1989	1994	1%	None								2.0%
	Non-ODP/GWP	1989	1994	99%	CO ₂	1995	1999	9%	None				
					HFC-152a	1995	1999	10%	None				

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Initial Market Segment	Primary Substitute				Secondary Substitute				Tertiary Substitute				Growth Rate ^b
	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment ^a	Maximum Market Penetration	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment ^a	Maximum Market Penetration	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment ^a	Maximum Market Penetration	

^a Transitions between the start year and date of full penetration in new equipment are assumed to be linear so that in total 100 percent of the market is assigned to the original ODS or the various ODS substitutes.

^b Growth Rate is the average annual growth rate for individual market sectors from the base year to 2030.

^c CFC-11 was the initial blowing agent used for through 1989. This transition is not shown in the table in order to provide the HFC transitions in greater detail.

^d The CFC-11 PU Rigid: Sandwich Panels: Continuous and Discontinuous market for new systems transitioned to 82 percent HCFC-141b and 18 percent HCFC-22 from 1989 to 1996. These transitions are not shown in the table in order to provide the HFC transitions in greater detail.

^e A linear transition to HFO-1336mzz(Z) from the HCFO-1233zd(E) market is assumed to take place beginning in 2020 and reaching 88 percent of the market by 2030. This transition is not shown in the table.

Table A-118: Emission Profile for the Foam End-Uses

Foam End-Use	Loss at Manufacturing (%)	Annual Leakage Rate (%)	Leakage Lifetime (years)	Annual Post-life Loss (%)	Loss at Disposal (%)	Total ^a (%)
Flexible PU Foam: Slabstock Foam, Moulded Foam	100	0	1	0	0	100
Vending Machine Foam	4	0.25	10	0	93.5	100
Stand-alone Equipment Foam	4	0.25	10	0	93.5	100
Ice Machine Foam	4	0.25	8	0	94.0	100
Refrigerated Food Processing and Dispensing						
Equipment Foam	4	0.25	10	0	93.5	100
Small Walk-in Cooler Foam	4	0.25	20	0	91.0	100
Large Walk-in Cooler Foam	4	0.25	20	0	91.0	100
CFC-11 Display Case Foam	4	0.25	18	0	91.5	100
CFC-12 Display Case Foam	4	0.25	18	0	91.5	100
Road Transport Foam	4	0.25	12	0	93.0	100
Intermodal Container Foam	4	0.25	15	0	92.3	100
Rigid PU: High Pressure Two-Component Spray Foam	15	1.5	50	0	10.0	100
Rigid PU: Low Pressure Two-Component Spray Foam	15	1.5	50	0	10.0	100
Rigid PU: Slabstock and Other ^a	20	1	15	1.5	22.5	57.5
Phenolic Foam	28	0.875	32	0	44.0	100
Polyolefin Foam	40	3	20	0	0	100
Rigid PU: One Component Foam	95	2.5	2	0	0	100
XPS: Sheet Foam	50	25	2	0	0	100
XPS: Boardstock Foam	25	0.75	25	0	56.25	100
Flexible PU Foam: Integral Skin Foam	95	2.5	2	0	0	100
Rigid PU: Domestic Refrigerator and Freezer						
Insulation (HFC-134a) ^a	6.5	0.5	14	2.0	37.2	50.7
Rigid PU: Domestic Refrigerator and Freezer						
Insulation (all others) ^a	3.75	0.25	14	2.0	39.9	47.15
PU and PIR Rigid: Boardstock ^a	10	1	40	1.5	22.5	72.5
PU Sandwich Panels: Continuous and Discontinuous ^a	15	0.5	75	1.25	22.5	75

PIR (Polyisocyanurate)

PU (Polyurethane)

XPS (Extruded Polystyrene)

^a Total emissions from foam end-uses are assumed to be 100 percent. In the Rigid PU: Slabstock and Other, Rigid PU Domestic Refrigerator and Freezer Insulation, PU and PIR Boardstock, and PU Sandwich Panels end-uses, the source of emission rates and lifetimes did not yield 100 percent emissions; the remainder is assumed to be emitted post-disposal at the annual post-life loss rate until remaining blowing agent is 100 percent emitted.

Sterilization

Sterilants kill microorganisms on medical equipment and devices. The principal ODS used in this sector was a blend of 12 percent ethylene oxide (EtO) and 88 percent CFC-12, known as “12/88.” In that blend, ethylene oxide sterilizes the equipment and CFC-12 is a diluent solvent to form a non-flammable blend. The sterilization sector is modeled as a single end-use. For sterilization applications, all chemicals that are used in the equipment in any given year are assumed to be emitted in that year, as shown in the following equation.

Equation A-20: Calculation of Total Emissions from Sterilization

$$E_j = Qc_j$$

where:

- | | | |
|------|---|--|
| E | = | Emissions. Total emissions of a specific chemical in year j from use in sterilization equipment, by weight. |
| Qc | = | Quantity of Chemical. Total quantity of a specific chemical used in sterilization equipment in year j , by weight. |
| j | = | Year of emission. |

Assumptions

The Vintaging Model contains one sterilization end-use, whose transition assumptions away from ODS and growth rates are presented in Table A-119.

Table A-119: Sterilization Market Transition Assumptions

Initial Market Segment	Primary Substitute				Secondary Substitute				Tertiary Substitute				Growth Rate
	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment ^a	Maximum Market Penetration	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment	Maximum Market Penetration	Name of Substitute	Start Date	Date of Full Penetration in New Equipment	Maximum Market Penetration	
12/88	EtO	1994	1995	95%	None								2.0%
	Non-ODP/GWP	1994	1995	0.8%	None								
	HCFC-124/EtO Blend	1993	1994	1.4%	Non-ODP/GWP	2015	2015	100%	None				
	HCFC-22/HCFC-124/EtO Blend	1993	1994	3.1%	Non-ODP/GWP	2010	2010	100%	None				

^a Transitions between the start year and date of full penetration in new equipment are assumed to be linear so that in total 100 percent of the market is assigned to the original ODS or the various ODS substitutes.

Model Output

By repeating these calculations for each year, the Vintaging Model creates annual profiles of use and emissions for ODS and ODS substitutes. The results can be shown for each year in two ways: 1) on a chemical-by-chemical basis, summed across the end-uses, or 2) on an end-use or sector basis. Values for use and emissions are calculated both in metric tons and in million metric tons of CO₂ equivalent (MMT CO₂ Eq.). The conversion of metric tons of chemical to MMT CO₂ Eq. is accomplished through a linear scaling of tonnage by the global warming potential (GWP) of each chemical.

Throughout its development, the Vintaging Model has undergone annual modifications. As new or more accurate information becomes available, the model is adjusted in such a way that both past and future emission estimates are often altered.

Bank of ODS and ODS Substitutes

The bank of an ODS or an ODS substitute is “the cumulative difference between the chemical that has been consumed in an application or sub-application and that which has already been released” (IPCC 2006). For any given year, the bank is equal to the previous year’s bank, less the chemical in equipment disposed of during the year, plus chemical in new equipment entering the market during that year, less the amount emitted but not replaced, plus the amount added to replace chemical emitted prior to the given year, as shown in the following equation:

Equation A-21: Calculation of Chemical Bank (All Sectors)

$$Bc_j = Bc_{j-1} - Qd_j + Qp_j - E_e + Q_r$$

where:

- Bc_j = Bank of Chemical. Total bank of a specific chemical in year j , by weight.
- Qd_j = Quantity of Chemical in Equipment Disposed. Total quantity of a specific chemical in equipment disposed of in year j , by weight.
- Qp_j = Quantity of Chemical Penetrating the Market. Total quantity of a specific chemical that is entering the market in year j , by weight.
- E_e = Emissions of Chemical Not Replaced. Total quantity of a specific chemical that is emitted during year j but is not replaced in that year. The Vintaging Model assumes all chemical emitted from refrigeration, air conditioning and fire extinguishing equipment is replaced in the year it is emitted, hence this term is zero for all sectors except foam blowing.
- Q_r = Chemical Replacing Previous Year’s Emissions. Total quantity of a specific chemical that is used to replace emissions that occurred prior to year j . The Vintaging Model assumes all chemical emitted from refrigeration, air conditioning and fire extinguishing equipment is replaced in the year it is emitted, hence this term is zero for all sectors.
- j = Year of emission.

Table A-120 provides the bank for ODS and ODS substitutes by chemical grouping in metric tons (MT) for 1990 to 2022.

Table A-120: Banks of ODS and ODS Substitutes, 1990-2022 (MT)

Year	CFC	HCFC	HFC
1990	728,543	183,887	872
1995	772,295	421,476	50,353
2000	631,209	826,001	189,580
2001	601,421	895,589	218,830
2002	575,846	951,822	251,291
2003	550,694	995,488	293,091
2004	525,108	1,039,715	336,602
2005	494,543	1,085,936	382,749
2006	463,002	1,127,859	434,511

2007	434,022	1,157,590	487,897
2008	410,180	1,173,233	537,893
2009	395,734	1,164,553	592,623
2010	380,423	1,132,025	663,179
2011	366,697	1,091,578	736,303
2012	354,333	1,048,298	811,499
2013	344,105	999,258	889,196
2014	335,150	949,955	968,349
2015	327,483	901,868	1,043,096
2016	320,990	852,504	1,115,501
2017	314,786	803,764	1,180,273
2018	311,138	751,558	1,241,984
2019	309,227	697,503	1,294,935
2020	307,434	639,785	1,339,545
2021	306,576	588,796	1,367,781
2022	306,529	542,871	1,394,809

Comparisons to Other Information on Supply and Emissions of HFCs

Comparison of Reported Consumption to Modeled Consumption of HFCs

As noted in Section 4.25 of the *Inventory* report, EPA conducted a quality assurance check of the Vintaging Model used for estimating emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and CO₂ used as ODS substitutes. EPA evaluated the consumption of saturated HFCs that the model estimates on an end-use by end-use (“bottom up”) manner and compared these results to the supply of saturated HFCs as reported under Subparts OO and QQ of the Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program (GHGRP), and for 2022 as reported under the American Innovation and Manufacturing (AIM) Act regulations. This allows for an overall quality control check on the modeled demand for new chemical in the Vintaging Model as a proxy for total amount supplied, which is similar to net supply, as an input to the emission calculations in the model.

GHGRP data reported under Subparts QQ and OO are not used directly to estimate emissions of ODS Substitutes because they do not include complete information on the sectors or end-uses in which that chemical will be used. Therefore, it does not provide the data that would be needed to calculate the source or time that a chemical is emitted. For instance, pure HFCs might be imported, then later mixed to make specific refrigerant blends, sold to an equipment manufacturer, charged into equipment by that manufacturer, and then equipment could be warehoused, sold to distributors, resold to technicians, and finally installed and placed into use. Reports to the GHGRP on production and bulk import (Subpart OO) do not currently include any information on expected end-uses. Published data on fluorinated gases contained in pre-charged equipment and closed-cell foams (Subpart QQ) does not provide detailed information on the type of product imported or exported. Furthermore, the information from both subparts would not capture the entire market in the United States.

Reported Net Supply (GHGRP and AIM Act Top-Down Estimate). Consumption patterns demonstrated through data reported under GHGRP Subpart OO (Suppliers of Industrial Greenhouse Gases) and Subpart QQ (Importers and Exporters of Fluorinated Greenhouse Gases Contained in Pre-Charged Equipment or Closed-Cell Foams), and beginning in 2022 the AIM Act, were compared to the modeled demand for new saturated HFCs used as ODS substitutes from the Vintaging Model. The collection of data from suppliers of HFCs enables EPA to calculate the reporters’ aggregated net supply—the sum of the quantities of chemical produced or imported into the United States less the sum of the quantities of chemical transformed (used as a feedstock in the production of other chemicals), destroyed, or exported from the United States.⁷⁰ This allows for an overall quality assurance check on the modeled demand for new chemical in the Vintaging Model as a proxy for total amount supplied, which is similar to net supply, as an input to the emission calculations in the model. Under EPA’s GHGRP, suppliers (i.e., producers, importers, and exporters) of HFCs under Subpart OO⁷¹ began annually

⁷⁰ Chemical that is exported, transformed, or destroyed—unless otherwise imported back to the United States—will never be emitted in the United States.

⁷¹ Among other provisions, the AIM Act of 2020 directed EPA to develop a U.S. production baseline and a U.S. consumption

reporting their production, transformation, destruction, imports, and exports to EPA in 2011 (for supply that occurred in 2010) and suppliers of HFCs under Subpart QQ began annually reporting their imports and exports to EPA in 2012 (for supply that occurred in 2011). The HFC phasedown regulations under the AIM Act took effect in 2022, with requirements for all HFC producers and importers to report. As noted above, this comparison has limitations. For instance, the model does not account for the stockpiles of chemical that might be imported or produced, and reported under the GHGRP or the AIM Act, and that may not be used immediately. Furthermore, the GHGRP does not require reporting from companies that import lower amounts of HFCs.

Modeled Consumption (Vintaging Model Bottom-Up Estimate). The Vintaging Model, used to estimate emissions from this source category, calculates chemical demand based on the quantity of equipment and products sold, serviced and retired each year, and the amount of the chemical required to manufacture and/or maintain the equipment and products on an end-use basis.⁷² It is assumed that the total demand equals the amount supplied by either new production, chemical import, or quantities recovered (often reclaimed) and placed back on the market. In the Vintaging Model, demand for new chemical, as a proxy for consumption, is calculated as any chemical demand (either for new equipment or for servicing existing equipment) that cannot be met through recycled or recovered material.⁷³ No distinction is made in the Vintaging Model between whether that need is met through domestic production or imports. To calculate emissions, the Vintaging Model estimates the quantity released from equipment over time, which varies by product type as detailed above. Thus, verifying the Vintaging Model's calculated consumption against GHGRP and AIM Act reported data, which does not provide details on the end-uses where the chemical is used, is not an exact comparison of the Vintaging Model's emission estimates, but is believed to provide an overall check of the underlying data.

There are eleven saturated HFC species modeled in the Vintaging Model: HFC-23, HFC-32, HFC-125, HFC-134a, HFC-143a, HFC-152a, HFC-227ea, HFC-236fa, HFC-245fa, HFC-365mfc, and HFC-43-10mee. Some amounts of additional, less-used, saturated HFCs, including isomers of those included in the Vintaging Model, are reportable under EPA's GHGRP and under the AIM Act. The GHGRP data are believed to represent an amount comparable to the modeled estimates as a quality assurance check. For instance, the consumption of other HFCs reported under the AIM Act (HFC-41, HFC-134, and HFC-236ea) was approximately 0.2% of the total HFC consumption in 2022 (EPA, 2024).

Comparison Results and Discussion

Comparing the estimates of consumption from these two approaches (i.e., reported and modeled) ultimately supports and improves estimates of emissions, as noted in the *2006 IPCC Guidelines* (which refer to fluorinated greenhouse gas consumption based on supplies as “potential emissions”):

[W]hen considered along with estimates of actual emissions, the potential emissions approach can assist in validation of completeness of sources covered and as a QC check by comparing total domestic consumption as calculated in this ‘potential emissions approach’ per compound with the sum of all activity data of the various uses (IPCC 2006).

Table A-121 and Figure A-7 compare the published net supply of saturated HFCs in MMT CO₂ Eq. as determined from Subpart OO (supply of HFCs in bulk) and Subpart QQ (supply of HFCs in products and foams) of EPA's GHGRP for the years 2012 through 2022 (EPA 2021a; EPA 2023a), with the exception that beginning in 2022, data from the AIM Act are used for bulk supply (EPA 2024), and the chemical demand as calculated by the Vintaging Model for the same time series. 2022 Subpart QQ values are not yet publicly available; these values are proxied using the 2021 supply. For comparison purposes, Vintaging Model estimates are presented using 100-year global warming potentials (GWPs)

baseline and to phase down HFC production and consumption relative to those baselines. Data reported to the GHGRP under Subpart OO are relevant to the production and consumption baselines. The data shown in Annex 3.9 include aggregated Subpart OO data for AIM-listed HFCs for reporting years 2013 through 2021 from all companies that reported AIM-listed HFCs, though not all species were reported in each reporting year.

⁷² The model builds an inventory of the in-use stock of equipment and products and ODSs and HFCs in each of the sub-applications. Emissions are subsequently estimated by applying annual and disposal emission rates to each population of equipment and products. See the above discussion in Annex 3.9. for further details on the model.

⁷³ The Vintaging Model does not calculate “consumption” as defined under the Montreal Protocol and the AIM Act, because the model includes chemical supplied to pre-charge equipment made overseas and sent to the domestic market and does not include chemical produced or imported in the United States but placed in products shipped to foreign markets.

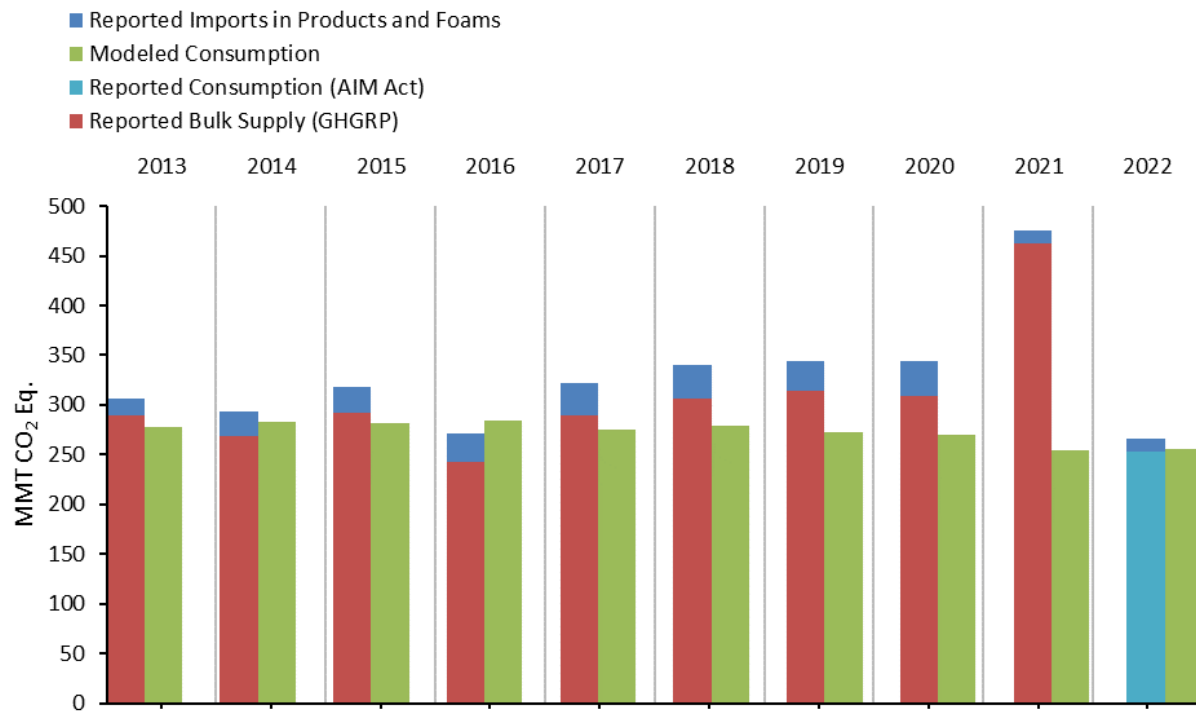
provided in the IPCC Fourth Assessment Report (AR4) (IPCC 2007), as reported net supply from GHGRP and the AIM Act are calculated using AR4 GWPs.

Table A-121: U.S. HFC Supply (MMT CO₂ Eq.)

Year	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Reported Net Supply	307	294	318	271	322	340	344	344	475	266
Industrial GHG Suppliers (GHGRP)	290	269	292	243	290	306	314	309	462	NA
Consumption (AIM Act)	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	253
HFCs in Products and Foams (GHGRP)	17	25	26	28	32	34	30	35	13	13
Modeled Supply (Vintaging Model)	278	283	281	284	276	280	273	270	254	256
Percent Difference	-9%	-4%	-12%	5%	-14%	-18%	-21%	-22%	-47%	-4%

NA (Not Applicable)

Figure A-7: U.S. HFC Consumption (MMT CO₂ Eq.)



As shown, the estimates from the Vintaging Model are lower than the GHGRP data by an average of 14.5 percent across the time series (i.e., 2013 through 2022), with the difference growing to an average of 20 percent over the three years prior to 2021 (i.e., 2018 through 2020) and 23 percent over the last 4 years (i.e., 2019 through 2022). The difference in 2021 is much larger, showing that supply greatly exceeded the estimated demand, and is addressed by the sub-bullets below. Potential reasons for the differences between the reported and modeled data include:

- A temporal effect results from the stockpiling of chemicals by suppliers and distributors. Suppliers might decide to produce or import additional quantities of HFCs for various reasons such as expectations that prices may increase, or supplies may decrease, in the future. Such stockpiled material could be used for new equipment produced at a later time and for on-going servicing. Based on information collected by the EPA at the time, such stockpiling behavior was seen during ODS phasedowns, and it is concluded that such behavior similarly exists amongst HFC suppliers in anticipation of current and recently promulgated controls on HFCs. Inventories of HFCs reported at the end of 2022 exceeded consumption by 55 percent (EPA 2024), indicating stockpiling had been going on for some time. Any such activity would increase the GHGRP data as compared to the modeled data. This effect is likely the major reason why there is a divergence in the comparison above, with the GHGRP

data in 2017 through 2021 (i.e., the years following agreement of the Kigali Amendment to the Montreal Protocol) significantly higher than the modeled data. Improvements of the model methodology to incorporate a temporal factor could be investigated. Information on U.S. HFC stockpiles could also be used to assess this source of discrepancy. Initial reporting under the AIM Act shows significant stockpiling of HFCs in 2022, the first year HFC production and consumption were limited (EPA 2024).

- The 2021 data follow a similar pattern as was seen during the ODS phasedowns. This was the year before HFC consumption was controlled by the EPA under the AIM Act. The so-called “campaign consumption” in 2021 is obvious when looking at the 2021 data and may be evident even in the 2017-2020 timeframe. This is not unlike the year 2003, the year in which the HCFC allocation program started, when the HCFC supply (in ODP-tons) was 42 percent higher than the average consumption from 1996 to 2002 (UNEP 2023).
- As noted below, additional comparison of the emissions from the Vintaging Model to atmosphere-based emission estimates also show a more apparent difference in the years 2017 through 2019 for HFC-32 and HFC-125, and through 2021 for HFC-134a. This could be an indication of a systemic issue wherein the model is underestimating the portion of the supply that is used to replace leaked chemical that has been emitted. This might be related to the supply issues noted above. For instance, if supply of HFCs were plentiful during these years, that could lead to some practices wherein emissions, and supply to replace those emissions, were significantly higher than estimated by the model.
- The fact that the top-down data are reported at the time of actual production or import, and the bottom-up supply data are calculated at the time of placement on the market (e.g., in new equipment or to service existing equipment) introduces another temporal discrepancy when comparing data. A potential improvement would be to incorporate a time lag into the model, which would require obtaining data on the movement of supplies through the point of actual use. Because the GHGRP data and the Vintaging Model estimates generally increase over time (although some year-to-year variations exist, and this trend reverses in 2022 when controls began), EPA would expect the modeled estimates to be slightly lower than the corresponding GHGRP data due to this temporal effect. Regulations under the AIM Act require the reporting of chemical supplies held at the close of the calendar year as noted above; such reports may help investigate this possible factor.
- Under EPA’s GHGRP, all facilities that produce HFCs are required to report their quantities, whereas importers or exporters of HFCs or pre-charged equipment and closed-cell foams that contain HFCs are only required to report if either their total imports or their total exports of greenhouse gases are greater than or equal to 25,000 metric tons of CO₂ Eq. per year. Thus, some imports or exports may not be accounted for in the GHGRP data, leading to further underestimation or overestimation of the model if imports or exports, respectively, are not represented in the reported GHGRP data. In 2022, some companies below the reporting threshold for imports and exports reported to the GHGRP, including data from as early as 2011, for AIM-listed HFCs as part of data collection efforts for the U.S. HFC production and consumption baselines; this data is included in the totals presented above. Data collected and released under the AIM Act will likewise be included in the reported totals in the future.
- In some years, imports and exports may be greater than consumption because the excess is being used to increase chemical or equipment stockpiles as discussed above; in other years, the opposite may hold true. Similarly, relocation of manufacturing facilities or recovery from the recessions and the COVID-19 pandemic could contribute to variability in imports or exports. The Vintaging Model does not reflect the dynamic nature of reported HFC consumption, with significant differences seen in each year. Whereas the Vintaging Model projects demand increasing or decreasing slowly, with some annual fluctuations, actual consumption for specific chemicals or equipment may vary over time and could even switch from positive to negative (indicating more chemical exported, transformed, and destroyed than produced and imported in a given year). Furthermore, consumption as calculated in the Vintaging Model is a function of demand not met by recovery of HFCs from equipment that is being disposed. If, in any given year, a significant number of units are disposed, there will be a large amount of additional recovery in that year that can cause an unexpected and not modeled decrease in demand and thus a decrease in consumption. On the other hand, if market, economic, or other factors cause less than expected disposal or recovery, actual supply would decrease, and hence consumption would increase to meet that demand not satisfied by recovered quantities, increasing the reported amounts.

EPA has published reclamation data, which would encompass a portion of the refrigerant recovered annually. This data could be reviewed to determine if it can be used to improve the modeling of these factors.

- The Vintaging Model is used to estimate the emissions that occur in the United States. As such, all equipment or products that contain ODSs or alternatives, including saturated HFCs, are assumed to consume and emit chemicals equally as like equipment or products originally produced in the United States. The GHGRP data from Subpart OO (industrial greenhouse gas suppliers) and the AIM Act includes HFCs produced or imported and used to fill or manufacture products that are then exported from the United States. The Vintaging Model estimates of demand and supply are not meant to incorporate such chemical. Likewise, chemicals may be used outside the United States to create products or charge equipment that is then imported to and used in the United States. The Vintaging Model estimates of demand and supply are meant to capture this chemical, as it will lead to emissions inside the United States. The GHGRP data from Subpart QQ (supply of HFCs in products) accounts for most of these differences; however, the scope of Subpart QQ does not cover all such equipment or products and the chemical contained therein. Depending on whether the United States is a net importer or net exporter of such chemical, this factor may account for some of the difference shown above or might lead to a further discrepancy.
- The Vintaging Model does not include every saturated HFC that is reported to EPA's GHGRP or under the AIM Act. Potential improvements in the modeling could include investigation of what sources use and emit such chemicals—which are not necessarily used as ODS substitutes—and to add them into the *Inventory*. However, the additional reported HFCs represent a small fraction of total HFC use for this source category, both in GWP-weighted and unweighted terms, and as such, it is not expected that the additional HFCs reported to EPA are a major driver for the difference between the two sets of estimates. In 2022, isomers represented 0.2 percent of total supply according to data from the AIM Act (EPA 2024). To the extent lower-GWP isomers were used in lieu of the modeled chemicals (e.g., HFC-134 instead of HFC-134a), lower CO₂ Eq. amounts in the reported data compared to the modeled estimates would be expected.

One factor, however, would only lead to modeled estimates to be even higher than the estimates shown and hence for most years closer to, although possibly higher than, GHGRP data:

- Saturated HFCs are also known to be used and emitted from other sources, such as electronics manufacturing and magnesium production and processing. The Vintaging Model estimates here do not include the amount of HFCs used for these applications, but rather only the amount used for applications that traditionally were served by ODSs. Nonetheless, EPA expects the quantities of HFCs used for these sources, such as electronics and magnesium production, to be very small compared to the ODS substitute use for the years analyzed. EPA estimates that electronics and magnesium production respectively consumed 0.3 MMT CO₂ Eq. and 0.03 MMT CO₂ Eq. of HFCs in 2022, which is much less than the ODS substitute sector in that year (178.4 MMT CO₂ Eq.)

Comparison of Emissions Derived from Atmospheric Measurements to Modeled Emissions

As noted in Section 4.25 of the *Inventory* report, EPA conducted another quality assurance check of the Vintaging Model estimated emissions. Emissions of some fluorinated greenhouse gases are estimated for the contiguous United States by scientists at the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) and were used to perform additional quality control by comparing the emission estimates derived from atmospheric measurements by NOAA to the bottom-up emission estimates from the Vintaging Model. The *2019 Refinement to the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2019)* Volume 1: General Guidance and Reporting, Chapter 6: Quality Assurance, Quality Control and Verification notes that atmospheric concentration measurements can provide independent data sets as a basis for comparison with inventory estimates. Further, it identified fluorinated gases as one of most suitable greenhouse gases for such comparisons. The *2019 Refinement* makes this conclusion on fluorinated gases based on the lack of natural sources, the potential uncertainties in bottom-up inventory methods for some sources, the long lifetimes of many of these gases in the atmosphere, and their well-known loss mechanisms. Unlike the more abundant greenhouse gases in the *Inventory*, since there are no known natural sources of HFCs, the HFC emission sources included in this *Inventory* account for the majority of total emissions detectable in the atmosphere, and the estimates derived from atmospheric measurements are driven solely by anthropogenic emissions.

The *2019 Refinement* provides guidance on conducting such comparisons (as summarized in Table 6.2 of IPCC 2019 Volume 1, Chapter 6) and provides guidance on using such comparisons to identify areas of improvement in national inventories (as summarized in Box 6.5 of IPCC 2019 Volume 1, Chapter 6).

Emission estimates for four key HFCs (HFC-134a, HFC-125, HFC-143a, and HFC-32) from atmosphere measurements for 2008 through 2014 (Hu et al., 2017) were examined in the 2022 *Inventory* (EPA 2022b) and updated estimates through 2020 inferred from the same methodology (Hu et al., 2022; Montzka et al., 2023), available at Hu et al. (2024), were used in the 2023 *Inventory* (EPA 2023b). With model refinements implemented during the past year that had small effects on the results, the underlying atmospheric HFC measurements were reevaluated in Hu et al. (2024), which also provides for an updated comparison over a longer time series, through 2021. This provides a quality check on the modeled emissions reported in Section 4.25 of the *Inventory* report. Potential *Inventory* updates identified due to the current comparison with atmospheric-derived emission estimates are noted in the Planned Improvements section in Section 4.25 of the *Inventory* report.

Comparison of Results

Table A-122 lists the emissions from EPA's Vintaging Model for the United States and from NOAA derived for the contiguous United States from atmospheric measurements as described in Hu et al. (2017) and updated in their recent studies (Hu et al. 2022; Montzka et al. 2023; Hu et al. 2024). NOAA's estimates were derived from inverse modeling driven by two different meteorological inputs, the Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPPLIT) model and the Stochastic Time-Inverted Lagrangian Transport (STILT) model and are available on NOAA's U.S. Potent GHG Tracker website (Hu et al. 2024). Figure A-8 below shows the derived emissions graphically for HFC-32, HFC-125, HFC-134a, and HFC-143a. In Hu et al. (2017), uncertainties in annual emission estimates represented one standard deviation of the spread of several inversion calculations, including uncertainties associated with the different meteorological inputs. Uncertainty results representing one standard deviation derived from individual meteorological input data were also updated in Hu et al. (2022) and Montzka et al. (2023). These values are provided in the tables and figures below. There is also uncertainty in the EPA results. Overall, the uncertainty in EPA's total Substitution of ODS emissions (i.e., total CO₂-equivalent emissions from HFCs, PFCs, and CO₂ used as alternatives to ODS) range from -4.1 percent to 15.1 percent (95 percent confidence interval), as shown in Section 4.25. At this time, the nature of the model and the uncertainty analysis does not allow EPA to provide specific uncertainties to each species and hence comparisons below are to the EPA estimates without consideration of the uncertainty involved in those estimates.

Table A-122: U.S. Emissions of HFC-32, HFC-125, HFC-134a and HFC-143a (Gg)

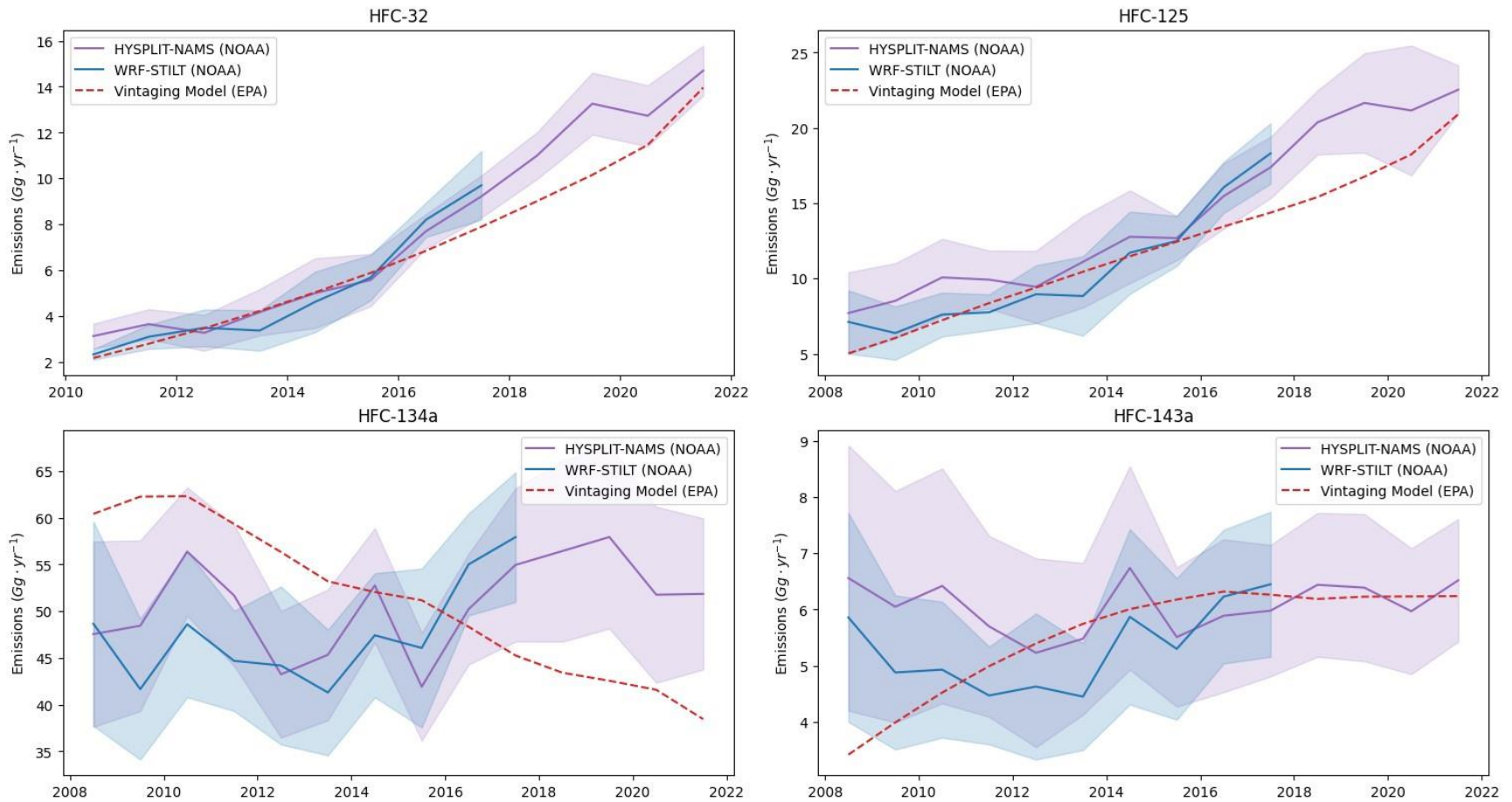
Gas	HFC-32 ^a			HFC-125			HFC-134a			HFC-143a			
	Source	EPA	NOAA (HYSPLIT)	NOAA (STILT)	EPA	NOAA (HYSPLIT)	NOAA (STILT)	EPA	NOAA (HYSPLIT)	NOAA (STILT)	EPA	NOAA (HYSPLIT)	NOAA (STILT)
2008	1.22		NA	NA	5.02	7.7±1.4	7.1±1.1	60.4	48±5	49±6	3.42	6.6±1.2	5.9±0.9
2009	1.56		NA	NA	6.05	8.5±1.3	6.4±0.9	62.3	48±5	42±4	3.99	6.1±1.0	4.9±0.7
2010	2.17	3.1±0.3	2.3±0.1		7.23	10±1	7.6±0.7	62.3	56±3	49±4	4.52	6.4±1.0	4.9±0.6
2011	2.80	3.7±0.3	3.1±0.3		8.36	9.9±1.0	7.8±0.6	59.3	52±4	45±3	4.99	5.7±0.8	4.5±0.4
2012	3.47	3.3±0.4	3.5±0.4		9.39	9.4±1.2	9.0±1.0	56.3	43±3	44±4	5.40	5.2±0.8	4.6±0.7
2013	4.22	4.2±0.5	3.4±0.4		10.4	11±2	8.8±1.3	53.2	45±3	41±3	5.75	5.5±0.7	4.5±0.5
2014	5.04	5.0±0.8	4.6±0.7		11.5	13±2	12±1	52.1	53±3	47±3	6.01	6.7±0.9	5.9±0.8
2015	5.88	5.6±0.6	5.7±0.5		12.4	13±1	12±1	51.2	42±3	46±4	6.18	5.5±0.6	5.3±0.6
2016	6.85	7.7±0.4	8.2±0.4		13.5	15±1	16±1	48.3	50±3	55±3	6.32	5.9±0.7	6.2±0.6
2017	7.90	9.2±0.5	9.7±0.8		14.4	17±1	18±1	45.3	55±4	58±3	6.26	6.0±0.6	6.5±0.6
2018	9.01	11±1		NA	15.4	20±1		NA	43.4	56±5		NA	
2019	10.2	13±1		NA	16.8	22±2		NA	42.6	58±5		NA	
2020	11.5	13±1		NA	18.2	21±2		NA	41.6	52±5		NA	
2021	14.0	15±1		NA	20.9	23±1		NA	38.4	52±4		NA	

^a Estimates for HFC-32 during 2008 and 2009 were not available from NOAA's atmospheric-based estimates (Hu et al. 2022; Hu et al. 2024; Montzka et al. 2023) and are excluded from this analysis. For information on emissions of HFC-32 during those years, the reader is referred to Hu et al. (2017)

NA is not available

Note: NOAA uncertainty values represent one standard deviation.

Figure A-8: U.S. Emissions of HFC-32, HFC-125, HFC-134a, and HFC-143a



The blue and purple solid lines show emissions estimates from NOAA using the STILT and HYSPLIT atmospheric models, respectively. The shaded area around each represents the 2 s.d. uncertainty range. The red dashed line represents the modeled emissions from the EPA Vintaging Model.

As shown, modeled estimates of HFC-32 were comparable with those derived from atmospheric measurements for the years 2010 to 2015, with only small differences (less than 1 Gg y⁻¹), but estimates differed from both the atmospheric-based estimates by more than two standard deviations (2 s.d.) in 2016 through 2019.⁷⁴ Both atmosphere-derived and inventory-modeled estimates show a similar trend of increasing emissions, but inventory-modeled estimates of HFC-32 increase slightly slower than the atmospheric-based estimates from both the HYSPLIT and STILT models after 2015 and through 2019. The inventory-modeled estimate return to within 2 s.d. starting in 2020, when the atmosphere-derived estimates decrease slightly which might reflect the influence of the COVID-19 pandemic on human behavior and use of these chemicals. Inventory-modeled emissions of HFC-134a have a tendency of being above the atmosphere-based estimates before 2014, but below from 2017 through 2021. While the mean values from NOAA show year-to-year variability, the data with uncertain ranges may suggest little or no trend in HFC-134a emissions throughout the time series, unlike the inventory-modeled result which shows a consistent downward trend since 2010; however, confidence in the trend derived from atmospheric measurements is limited because the magnitude of uncertainties are similar to the overall change and because increasing or decreasing trends of the mean values do not persist for more than four years. Inventory-modeled estimates for HFC-125 were consistently within 2 s.d. uncertainty of atmosphere-based estimates through 2016 but were smaller by more than 2 s.d. between 2017 and 2019 and again in 2021. Both the inventory-modeled and atmospheric-based results suggest an upward trend for HFC-125 emissions. As with HFC-32, the estimates derived from atmospheric measurement increase more quickly than the inventory-modeled estimates after 2015, but the inventory-modeled estimates return within 2 s.d. for 2020, when the atmospheric-based estimates decline. Like HFC-32, it is unclear whether this decrease in atmospheric-based estimates from 2019 to 2020 was due behavioral changes during the beginning of the pandemic. HFC-143a emissions calculated for the inventory were comparable to the mean atmospheric-based estimates with either the HYSPLIT or STILT model, but uncertainty ranges were slightly higher than for the other gases on a relative basis. Considering these uncertainty ranges, HFC-143a inventory-modeled values agree within 2 s.d. of the HYSPLIT-based estimates for all years except 2008, and within 2 s.d. of the STILT-based estimates for all years except 2008 and 2013. Inventory-modeled estimates for HFC-143a trend upward until 2016 and then remain relatively constant through 2021. In the NOAA estimates, no secular trend is discernable from 2008 to 2021 for HFC-143a considering the annual mean uncertainties of approximately 12.5 percent; however, the mean values from the NOAA estimates are also relatively constant (within approximately 1 Gg y⁻¹ of the overall mean) throughout the entire time series.

Table A-123 shows the differences in the emissions results from EPA's Vintaging Model and the mean results from NOAA (averaged across the HYSPLIT and STILT model results, as applicable) for those years where modeled estimates were not within the given 1 s.d. uncertainty range in the NOAA results. Years when modeled estimates are within the uncertainty range reported by NOAA are not shown as those differences are assumed to be insignificant. We also look at the 2 s.d. range in the NOAA results, which for these results are simply two times the 1 s.d. uncertainty magnitudes. Emissions differences found to be outside that range are shown in bold in the table, indicating more attention may be warranted to understand these results. As shown in the Uncertainty discussion under Section 4.25, the inventory-based estimates from EPA only provide an overall uncertainty estimate for all emissions, not by gas; therefore, it is likely that Table A-123 overstates the actual differences. Comparing the results from the individual gases shows changes over time, for example:

- a. For HFC-32, while the differences for 2016 to 2021 were not within the 1 s.d. uncertainty ranges for NOAA estimates, the differences averaged only -1.6 Gg per year during these six years and were trending towards a smaller difference in the last two years. Results were within the 2 s.d. uncertainty range of the NOAA estimates for the earlier years of 2010 to 2015, and within 1 s.d. for 2012 through 2015. For 2016 to 2021, the modeled results were an average of 14 percent below the mean of the atmospherically derived values.
- b. For HFC-125, the differences were within the uncertainty range of the NOAA estimates for 2009 to 2015. The results in 2008, 2016, and 2020 were within the twice uncertainty range. For 2017 to 2019, inventory-modeled results 22 percent below the mean of the atmospherically derived values, on average.
- c. For HFC-134a, the differences ranged from 20 percent below the 1 s.d. uncertainty range in 2019 and 2021 to 17 percent above the 1 s.d. uncertainty range in 2009. With the exception of 2014 and 2016, all differences

⁷⁴ To determine if EPA results agreed with the 1 s.d. range of uncertainty in the atmosphere-based estimates from NOAA, EPA compared to the range represented by the lowest mean value less one s.d. and the highest mean value plus one s.d., even if these two values came from different atmospheric models (i.e., HYSPLIT and STILT). A similar process was used for 2 s.d. comparisons.

were greater than the NOAA estimates at the 1 s.d. uncertainty range. Furthermore, of these differences outside 1 s.d. uncertainty, only the 2010 and 2015 estimates were within the NOAA estimates at twice the uncertainty.

- d. For HFC-143a, the inventory-modeled results were within the 1 s.d. uncertainty range in 2010 through 2014, and again in 2016 to 2021. The 2009 and 2015 model results were within the twice uncertainty range. The most significant difference was in 2008, where the modeled result was below the NOAA estimates by 45 percent compared to the mean of the atmospherically derived values, or 15% below the 2 s.d. uncertainty range.

Table A-123: Gigagram (Percentage) Differences between EPA and NOAA HFC Emission Estimates

Year	HFC-32 ^a	HFC-125 ^a	HFC-134a ^a	HFC-143a ^a
2008	NA	-2.4 (-32%)	12 (26%)	-2.8 (-45%)
2009	NA		17 (38%)	-1.5 (-27%)
2010	-0.6 (-20%)		10 (19%)	
2011	-0.6 (-17%)		11 (23%)	
2012			13 (29%)	
2013			10 (23%)	
2014				
2015			7 (16%)	0.8 (14%)
2016	-1.1 (-14%)	-2 (-15%)		
2017	-1.6 (-17%)	-3 (-19%)	-11 (-20%)	
2018	-2 (-18%)	-5 (-24%)	-13 (-23%)	
2019	-3 (-23%)	-5 (-23%)	-15 (-27%)	
2020	-1 (-10%)	-3 (-14%)	-10 (-20%)	
2021	-1.0 (-5.0%)	-2 (-7.2%)	-13 (-26%)	
Average ^b	-0.8 (-8.4%)	-1.9 (-13%)	1 (3.9%)	-0.3 (-4.3%)
Average of Absolute Values ^b	1.0 (12%)	2.0 (14%)	11 (21%)	0.7 (11%)

^a The values for 1 s.d. and 2 s.d. were derived separately for the HYSPLIT and STILT values plus or minus the respective uncertainties for each HFC and year. These maximum and minimum values were then compared to the EPA estimates (with unknown uncertainty) for each year to see if the inventory-modeled emissions are within 1 s.d. or twice the 1 s.d. (i.e., 2 s.d.) of the atmospherically-derived emissions.

^b Averages are for all years 2008-2021, except HFC-32, where averages are for all years 2010-2020.

Notes: Differences smaller than the 1 s.d. uncertainty on the annual NOAA-based estimates are not shown. Differences greater than 2 s.d. shown in bold font. Uncertainties associated with the Vintaging Model have not been estimated by compound and year so are not included and could imply fewer differences than shown in this table.

Discussion and Areas for Additional Research

The following are potential contributing factors to the variation between the results and possible ways these could inform changes to the model that would reduce the differences seen.

- When examining the NOAA estimates and uncertainties at the 2 s.d., only a few differences from EPA model results are identified, primarily with HFC-134a and the 2017 to 2019 period with HFC-32 and HFC-125. In general, the uncertainties in the NOAA estimates are primarily driven by the frequency and spatial density of the atmospheric sampling, and the transport model simulations. There is also inherent uncertainty in the consistency of the setup of each gas chromatography measurement taken—e.g., variation in calibration, impurities in the carrier gas used, among others (Barwick 1999); however, that uncertainty is likely less than 1 percent for HFC-125, HFC-134a, and HFC-143a, and less than 5 percent for HFC-32. For HFC-134a and HFC-143a,

there is no consistent upward or downward trend in the atmosphere-derived emissions through the entire time period, as overall changes are similar to or smaller than the associated uncertainties. For HFC-134a, however, the atmospheric data are inconsistent with the downward emission trends derived from the activity-based modeling. In the case of HFC-32 and HFC-125, an increasing trend is seen in both the atmosphere and inventory-based estimates, albeit with slightly different rates throughout the entire time interval. As discussed above, there is also uncertainty in the EPA estimates. Although these are not available by individual species, these uncertainties may also explain some of the differences seen. See Section 4.25 for a discussion of planned improvements to the modeled estimates that could address some of these discrepancies.

- A thorough discussion of the uncertainties and influencing factors in the NOAA estimates is provided in Hu et al. (2017). That study notes that emissions estimated from inverse modeling of atmospheric data can depend on assumed prior emission distributions and magnitudes, and accordingly the quoted uncertainties on the NOAA results have been augmented to include these influences. In general, in a region where there are fewer atmospheric observations, the NOAA results will inherently tend towards the prior and be impacted by neighboring regions and populations (NOAA/EPA 2020). If the emissions or emissions per person (depending on which prior is used) are significantly different in these areas compared to the nearby areas, derived emissions for these regions can be biased.
- Uncertainty in atmospheric emission estimates is influenced by the number of NOAA’s atmospheric sampling sites and frequency of measurements at those sites, and both have changed over time. Uncertainties were greatest in 2008 and 2009—i.e., early on in the North American sampling program (Hu et al. 2017)—due to the fewer number of tower sites and available measurements in those startup years. This may help explain why none of the EPA results for 2008 were within one standard deviation of the NOAA estimates, although HFC-125 was within twice the uncertainty range. Also, changes in the number and location of measurement sites within the air sampling network, which contains over 25 sites, can lead to biases in the year-to-year emission estimates. Uncertainties related to network changes were estimated with separate inversion runs in which sites were removed from the analysis and differences ascertained in Hu et al. (2017) but are not included in NOAA’s current estimates of uncertainty that are given here.
- The Vintaging Model estimated emissions for the entire United States, including all 50 states and territories. Conversely, NOAA limits scope to the contiguous 48 states and the District of Columbia (NOAA/EPA 2020). In that regard, EPA would expect the model to estimate slightly higher emissions than those reported by NOAA, by roughly 2 percent based on population data (U.S. Census 2021). Activity data for Hawaii, Alaska and territories could be researched and, if they were available, adjustments could be made to allow for a more direct comparison to the estimates supplied by NOAA.
- For HFC-125, the EPA model suggests lower emissions, outside the 2 s.d. uncertainty range, particularly during 2017 through 2019 but again to a smaller extent in 2021 relative to the average of the atmosphere-derived estimates. For HFC-143a, the EPA model suggests lower emissions in 2008, but within 2 s.d. of the atmosphere-derived estimates for all other years. Further research into the refrigeration market might improve the agreement in the estimates for these two gases. As stated in the Introduction to Section 4.25, emissions from the large retail food end-use (e.g., supermarkets) were estimated to have the second highest contribution to the overall HFC emissions. Research in this industry on the shift away from blends such as R-404A (which contains both HFC-125 and HFC-143a) to refrigerants such as R-407A or R-448A (which contain HFC-125 but not HFC-143a) or success in lowering emission rates could be used to improve the bottom-up model.
- After a number of years of good consistency in emission estimates and trends for both HFC-32 and HFC-125, deviations grew beginning in 2016, with the atmosphere-derived estimates increasingly larger than the modeled estimates through 2019. The modeled emissions of HFC-32 agreed well with the atmospheric inversion results in absolute terms (within 2 s.d.) through 2015, with atmosphere-derived estimates higher by slightly more than 2 s.d. in 2016 through 2019 compared to the modeled estimates, although both data sets show the same increasing trend, with a notable exception from 2019 to 2020 in the atmosphere-derived estimates. Slightly lower model results might imply that the actual emissions from R-410A (a 50:50 by mass ratio of HFC-32 and HFC-125) equipment were slightly higher than modeled. Lower model results could also imply that the model assumed a higher than actual use of “dry-charge” residential AC equipment in lieu of R-410A. EPA investigated this matter and determined that this possibility was not likely to be the cause for the noted differences (EPA 2022b). This difference might also imply that the assumption of a consistent average emission rate during operation, which is used for all products in the *Inventory*, is not accurately representing

these gases, in particular from the stationary air conditioning sector. As noted earlier in the GHGRP comparison, the supply reported under the GHGRP in these later years is also higher than predicted by the Vintaging Model. This might imply that these differences are driven in part by an underestimate of the emissions from existing equipment or recovery from discarded equipment, which would result in the Vintaging Model estimating lower emissions and lower supply, respectively, which could explain such differences.

- The modeled inventory results for HFC-134a are complicated by an assumed decrease in emissions from motor vehicle air conditioning (due to previous shifts towards lower charge sizes and emission rates, as well as the transition to HFO-1234yf) with concurrent increases in other sectors using HFC-134a, such as for foam blowing given the HCFC bans in foam blowing and other uses. While the inter-annual changes in the NOAA mean values for this gas are small compared to the uncertainties, they show relatively consistent emissions over the available record and do not appear to show a subsequent decrease apparent in the bottom-up inventory-based emission estimates after 2010. If the EPA model is underestimating the increased use in foam blowing and/or overestimating the decrease in emissions from the motor vehicle air conditioning end-use, that might account for some of the differences seen. Further, other uses of HFC-134a not included in the model could account for these differences. For instance, although the *new* vehicle market has been transitioning out of HFC-134a as modeled, it is not clear whether the *existing* fleet of vehicles has an increasing rate of HFC-134a emissions, either from those older vehicles designed for HFC-134a or possibly the illegal use of HFC-134a in vehicle air conditioners designed for HFO-1234yf.
- There are data limitations inherent in the bottom-up model. As described above, emissions are estimated by applying assumed emission profiles to multiple end-uses, each of which can have thousands or millions of individual uses in the United States. In some cases where equipment stocks or sales are unknown, estimates are made using an average growth rate and by taking the most recent year where the starting stock or sales of equipment is known or can be reasonably estimated, then accounting for equipment lifetimes, and subsequently estimating the amount of equipment in future and/or preceding years where a value was not available. Such assumptions are evident in the approximately constant slopes of the EPA emission estimates compared to the more varying nature found in NOAA's mean results. Future work could look at whether these variations might be consistent with other factors that influence emissions, such as equipment installations, sales, retirements, or pandemic-related supply issues, which could vary from year to year.

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Data are also taken from various government sources, including rulemaking analyses from the U.S. Department of Energy and from the Motor Vehicle Emission Simulator (MOVES) model from EPA's Office of Transportation and Air Quality.